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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF WAR

by

Lewis Michael Mackay

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR

THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

IN

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1992

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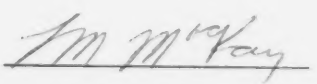

L. M. MacKay
18207 61 Ave.
Edmonton, AB.
T6M 1T6

31 Jan 92

Date:

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF WAR submitted by LEWIS MICHAEL MACKAY in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education in School Psychology.

Dr. F.J. Boersma

Dr. H.L. Janzen

Dr. K.L. Ward

DATE: 9 Dec 91

ABSTRACT

In this descriptive study, the main intent was to ascertain the students' perceptions (knowledge, attitudes and feelings) with regards to war. This was accomplished through the use of a Perceptions of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire and student drawings. Secondly, the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children was administered to ascertain the personality type of the sample. Then the questionnaire answers of clearly defined personality type and undetermined personality type students were compared. The sample used in the study was 63 students, Grades 5 to 8 inclusive, from Canadian Forces Base Edmonton. Data for the study was collected during the month of June 1991, approximately three months after a ceasefire was declared in the Persian Gulf War.

Overal, the results of this study indicated that the perceptions of student sample, under examination, were based upon primarily what they saw on television and by what they gathered from their parents. Their knowledge base about the Persian Gulf War was quite good and they presented a divergence of views when it came to their opinions of warfare. Factors such as sex of the respondent did appear to have an affect on some of the responses. This appeared to be consistent with other studies conducted on children's attitudes to

warfare. Due to the size of the sample, however, no definitive interaction was determined between the responses of clearly defined personality type students and those responses of undetermined personality types.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Research into children's perceptions of war and its effects on them is on going. It does appear to be an area of some interest, as 200 articles representing the period from January 1983 to June 1991 have been written on the topic of children and their attitudes, their perceptions and their fears about war. These studies have come from all geographical areas, including North America, Western and Eastern Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. Many of the studies, because of the nature of the Cold War and the practice of nuclear deterrance by the Super Powers, have focussed upon the how children have coped with the nuclear threat and how it has clouded their vision of the future Haas, (1984); Tizard, (1984); Gillies, (1989); Doctor, Goldenring, Chivian, Mack, Waletzky, Lazaroff & Goss, (1988); Roscoe, Stevenson & Yacobozzi, (1988). The research has indicated that children viewed the threat of world war as one of their top three concerns. This finding seemed to be universal, regardless of what country in which the research was conducted. Warfare, be it nuclear or otherwise, was an issue the children of the world viewed with concern. It was an issue which they have experienced either in

reality, like the children living in a war zone or by watching a war unfold on television.

The world has recently gone through another war experience with the Persian Gulf War. Canada was involved in an armed conflict for the first time since the Korean War. For the first time in history, the experience of warfare was brought immediately into people's homes via the video media, just as the adventure was unfolding. The vivid images of exploding buildings, personnel carriers and tanks, incoming and outgoing missiles of all types, thousands of POWs wanting to give up, civilians and troops dawning gas masks, lines of experts commenting upon this or that phase of the war, were all images brought live into our homes. Even the language of warfare, we discovered had been sanitized. The language and the images of war were with us for six weeks. The aftermath of war was present in all forms of media. It was the belief of this researcher that these experiences have contributed to children's perceptions to war.

Is it possible that the personality of a child affects their perception to warfare? War does involve the individual, in such factors as values and attitudes. It is a known fact that war is often portrayed as a glorious mission. In major conflicts,

like World War I and World War II, millions of men and women on both sides volunteered for service. Each person believed they were doing the right thing for their country. Many of the people, who lived to witness the peace and returned home, refused to discuss what they had seen or done. For most of the world, visual images of conflict were often delayed for months. We saw only what we were permitted to see by censors. The Vietnam War experience changed this slightly. It was not uncommon to view the evening news and have the media bring the war right into our living room. People could, for the first time witness bombings, air warfare and finally land campaigns. The viewer saw soldiers and noncombatants being killed. Personality often affects how we deal with tragedy and dramatic incidents in our lives. War is indeed dramatic and does involve the person. Perhaps the personality of the child contributed to his/her perceptions of war.

Research into psychological type has grown in popularity in recent years. This interest is probably the result of an increased emphasis on introspection and self- examination and a search for practical tools by which life can be made simpler and more effective (Evans, Benner & Hayes, 1985). There have been studies carried out to show the relationship between

psychological type and factors including achievement, intelligence, attendence at sports events, success in certain careers, etc. (Willis, 1984). However, due to the nature of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), the majority of this research appeared to have been focussed on adults. There developed a need to apply psychological type theory to children and devise a test that could measure this. The Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC), a test built on the same foundation and developed within the same framework as the MBTI, was created in 1987 (Murphy & Meisgeier, 1987). It was now possible to examine many of the areas under taken by the researchers Myers-Briggs using that instrument and looking at these from the perspective of children.

Background of the Problem

Many researchers who have examined the affects of war on children have wondered whether or not the threat of war has affected the personality development of the child. Escalona (1982), among others, has postulated that the development of a child's personality is in some way dependent upon the child's ability to view the present and the future. In times of threat of war, especially nuclear war, this is often not possible and

thus the concern and fear that the personality of some children is affected.

Psychological/Personality Type theory states that each person has a preferred way to do things, be it solving a problem, relating to a person, working at a task and so forth (Evans, Benner & Hayes, 1985). These preferences reflect an assumption about the world in which we live, our values, attitudes and interests. When these factors are together and acted upon, they yield a personality type.

The notion of personality type is not new. In fact, Hippocrates, during the time of the Greeks, described four personality types (Evans, Benner & Hayes, 1985). The modern day theory of psychological type can be attributed to Carl Jung. Jung believed that preferences, that is tendencies to act in a certain way, may be inborn. People began to exhibit a preference from about the age of 6 years (Evans et al., 1985). Jung's research led him to identify three bi-polar preferences, Myers and Briggs added the fourth. Jung concluded that the two major functions of psychological type, perception and judgement, contribute to the discussion of any event. He stated that people tend to perceive through intuition or sensing. Judging involved thinking and feeling.

Extroversion and introversion dealt with how we are oriented to the outer or inner world. Extroverts tended to be sociable and enjoy active participation in tasks, while introverts needed privacy and do their best work when alone or with few people (Murphy & Meisgeier, 1987). The way we receive information, as stated earlier, can be through sensing or intuition. People who prefer sensing tend to be practical and realistic, focussing on the present. Those who prefer intuition attend to meaning, relationships, symbols and their focus is on the future (Murphy & Meisgeier,1987). Decisions made about what we perceive occur through thinking or feeling. Those preferring feeling, consider the impact of decisions on others, and are sensitive to the values of others, whereas those who prefer thinking are analytical and concerned with objective truth and justice. Finally, in dealing with our outer world, Briggs, in developing the MBTI, stated that one may rely on judging and perceiving preferences. Individuals who prefer judging tend to be organized and like to bring closure to projects, whereas perceiving individuals are adaptable, curious and like to keep options open (Murphy & Meisgeier, 1987).

In summary, personality type research maintains that the preferences Extroversion (E) and Introversion

(I), as well as Judging (J) and Preceiving (P) are attitudes. Meanwhile, Sensing (S) and Intuition (N), as well as Thinking (T) and Feeling (F) are functions. An individual psychological type is a combination of two attitudes and two functions. When put together there are sixteen possible types.

Jung was unable to develop a measure to assess type. Clarence Myers and Katherine Briggs developed a test to measure the variables in Jung's personality typology. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) has gone through several versions, but it is considered a good instrument based on substantive, theoretical and empirical basis (Willis, 1984). The MBTI was designed for adults and adolescents. In 1987, the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC) was developed. One of the main uses of the test has been to determine learning styles of pupils and then design individual programs based upon the child's personality type.

Drawings can also play a significant a part in understanding how children feel as well as think. For example, in counselling the grieving, one technique used by some psychologists is to give the client the MBTI and then ask then to draw how they view the loss of their loved one. By comparing the personality type

and the focus of their drawing, a counselling strategy is devised. Furth (1988), in his book, **The Secret World of Drawings**, dramatically illustrated how perceptive children's drawings can be in determining how a child felt toward something. Colors used, plus the relationship exposed by the drawings, was one of the keys to understanding what the child was experiencing. Kubler-Ross maintained that spontaneous drawings were one of the most effective and accessible tools at an analyst's disposal. Therefore use of drawings, as an evaluative tool, must be seriously considered. Thus drawings were used in this study.

Statement of the Problem

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the perceptions of Grade 5 to Grade 8 students toward the Persian Gulf War and warfare generally. This was accomplished by examining the students' knowledge of the Persian Gulf War and their attitudes to war generally, through a the Perception of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire. A secondary purpose was to compare the responses of clearly defined personality types with the responses of those students with undetermined personality type. The subjects wrote the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children and the questionnaire responses given by those children with a

clearly defined personality type were compared with those who have an undetermined personality type. Finally, the subjects were asked to construct drawings of their images of warfare. The students were also asked to respond to three questions once the drawings were completed. These were:

1. How would you describe your drawing?
2. What does the drawing mean to you?
3. How do you feel about war?

Research Questions

In this study, the main intent was to ascertain the students' perceptions to war. Secondly, the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children was administered to ascertain the personality type of the sample. Then the questionnaire answers and pictures of clearly defined personality type and undefined personality type students were compared. The comparison might yield a relationship between answers given and personality type of the respondents. This study was designed to research the following questions:

1) What perceptions (knowledge, feelings and attitudes) did the total sample have with regard to the Persian Gulf War specifically and warfare generally?

2) Did the gender of the respondent have any effect on their perceptions (knowledge, feelings, and attitudes) to the Persian Gulf War and warfare generally?

3) How did the sub sample, those 24 students from this study who were found to have clearly defined personality type, compare with the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample population?

4) How did this sub sample population compare in relation to the percentages of each bi polar preference scale, including U band cases, to the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample?

5) What differences in responses occurred between the answers supplied by those study participants identified as having a clearly defined personality type and those who had undefined personality type?

6) What do the children's drawings tell us about their thoughts and feelings towards war?

Chapter II

Literature Review

Children's Ideas and Attitudes Towards War

Interest in the study of children's perceptions of warfare is not new. War, as we understand it, involves massive death and destruction. War in the Twentieth Century has come in several forms and research into children's perceptions of war has occurred accordingly. The periods of World War 1 and 2 saw some research into this area by the countries who were the combatants. Despite the pain and suffering caused by these conflicts, these wars were termed conventional wars and the affects of these wars could be localized. With the advent of the Cold War and nuclear weaponry, annihilation of the human species became a real possibilty. Therefore much of the research that is carried out is centred upon children's thoughts of nuclear war and how they feel about this threat (Davies, 1984). Perhaps because of the shere possibility of annihilation, there was a rise in the number of guerilla wars which have taken place during the last thirty years. Conflicts in Northern Ireland, Lebanon, Angola, El Salvador, to mention a few, has brought tremendous suffering to the civilian

populations involved. Regardless of the location of the conflict, research has indicated that children do have definite ideas of what is happening in war zones and that their perceptions can affect how they feel about themselves and the conflict generally.

Conventional Warfare

As early as World War 1, there were attempts to garner opinions of children. One of the first studies described was by Kimmins (1916) as reported in Jersild & Meigs (1943). Kimmins' findings were obtained from essays written by over 3000 British boys and girls a little more than one year after World War 1 started. These elementary children were told to write as much as they could about the war in 15 minutes. Her findings included the following:

1. children at eight years gave blurred accounts of the war;

2. as aged increased so did the ability to give detail and express opinion about the conflict;

3. and children over the age of eleven were better able to explain the origins of the conflict, to explain the war in terms of higher motives such as freedom and

to grasp the magnitude of what was happening (Jersild & Meigs, 1943).

Kimmins felt that the concept of war was a difficult one to understand for children and that age did play a role in grasping it.

One of the more important early studies was conducted by Preston (1942). In the book, **Children's Reaction to a Comtempory War Situation**, he described his findings after administering a questionnaire to 290 boys and 291 girls in Metropolitan New York during the period 8-22 January, 1940. His sample was of above average socio-economic status and intelligence and ranged in age from 8-15 years. The questionnaire consisted of 101 True - False items based upon the war events in Europe of late 1939. As well, 100 children were selected at random to take part in an interview aimed at getting specific detailed information about war and opinions about the probability of the United States going to war. When all the questionnaire and interview responses were analyzed, it was discovered that the subjects were generally aware of the events in Europe but could be easily tripped up on specific details. Misinformation was more prevalent among girls. Boys appeared more interested in warfare than girls because they used various media to gain

information. Age seemed to play apart in the children's understanding of the concept of war. Younger children were unable to comprehend the concept of war fully. Preston felt that at about 13 years, a child could understand this concept. Preston's study was considered to be the most comprehensive of the time with regard to the topic of children and their ideas of war.

Sherman (1943) conducted a study of 7000 Chicago High School Students. It was conducted shortly after American entry into World War II. He used themes from 6500 writing assignments based upon their answers to the question, How will the war affect me? As well, he conducted five hundred interviews. Each written assignment was read four times and placed in one of seven categories ranging from direct antagonism to war to a favorable attitude to war. The findings of the study indicated that 5% were directly antagonistic to war, 6% were critical, 21% were indifferent, 12% were confused, 9% were mildly favorable, 26% favorable and 22% strongly favorable. As well, older students tended to verbalize more and be more critical. Girls were more critical than boys and showed stronger attitudes.

Jersild and Meigs (1943) attempted a meta analysis of research carried out from 1914 to 1943 on children's

attitudes to war. The body of research they reviewed led them to believe that the impact of war on a child was influenced by his/her understanding of what was happening and the child's ability to grasp the implications of near and far war activity. They agreed with Kimmins (1916) that as a child ages, his/her understanding of the concept of war increased. Jersild and Meigs quoted several other studies that confirmed this including Preston (1942). The research they examined indicated that younger children were affected by the worries of their elders and that children's attitudes to war showed a notable absence of tending to glorify war or to look upon it as an adventure. The authors stated that Preston (1942) and Bender and Frosch (1942) demonstrated that children considered warfare, a method for material gain.

Alvik (1968) conducted a study with Norwegian children within the Piagetian framework. He orally asked children between the ages of 8 and 12 to give their thoughts about war and peace. Alvik also asked the students to draw pictures of war and peace. However, the article did not give examples of the drawings. It appeared that the drawings were used in the interview portion of the study to discuss the subject's conceptions of peace and war. War, to his subjects, could only be conceived of in concrete terms

and peace was thought to be a negative concept. His research led him to state that despite the wealth of information surrounding children on war, children had difficulty understanding and coming to conclusions about this information and thus did not understand the processes of war and peace.

Rosell (1968) was interested in the social influences of war and peace. He maintained that children are socialized into ways of seeing the world. His research found that age and sex are significant in determining how a child thinks about war. He stated that girls were more likely to mention the consequences of war such as injury, death etc., whereas boys would mention factors such as troops, equipment and fighting. Young boys, he felt, found war quite attractive. His findings led him to believe that as age increased, children were more likely to define war in terms of a conflict.

Using as a back drop the Vietnam War, Tolley (1973) conducted a study of children's attitudes to war. The sample consisted of 2677 children aged seven to fifteen and 81 teachers. The students were from public, private, parochial schools in the states of New York, New Jersey, and Maryland. Each student answered a questionnaire which was given during the period

January to March 1971. His study focussed on on how children acquire specific attitudes to war; what attitudes the children had to the Vietnam War; how much factual knowledge the children had about the Vietnam War and what were the primary sources of their information about the war. His findings were that children in 1971 regarded war in the abstract as immoral yet older children will make exceptions as in the case of national defence. He found that his sample showed no greater pacificism or anti war sentiments than those polled in the 1930s. The children in the sample did not demonstrate an impressive command of the widely known facts of the Vietnam War. Reasons for this may include the desire for schools and parents to shield students from the reality of war. Tolley stated that the media was a more influencial source of information to children about the war than their parents, however, parents greatly influenced what the children believed about the war.

Roscoe, Stevenson and Yacobozzi (1988) conducted a study similar to Tolley's efforts. Using children from 11 to 14 years old of which 194 were males and 168 were females, the researchers attempted to sample the opinions and attitudes towards warfare of this group by having them complete a questionnaire. Aside from general questions about warfare, specific questions

about American involvement in stationing troops in Latin America were included. The results of the study included the fact that males were more accepting toward war than females. Another interesting finding of the study was that parents and teachers were considered to be more important sources of information on the topic than television.

The Threat of Nuclear War

One of the earliest and most influential attempts to understand how children thought about war and peace, using the threat of nuclear war as a back drop to his research, was carried out by Peter Cooper (1965). Cooper based his research on the cognitive development ideas of Piaget. By examining the ideas that children have on war and peace, he hoped to find clues as to how adults form their ideas about these issues. His sample was English children ranging in age from 7-16 years. He used a questionnaire followed by an interview. He found that younger children were concerned by the concrete aspects, weapons, etc; whereas older children were concerned with fighting, dying and killing. He believed that a child's personal experience of conflict and aggression serve as a model for their understanding of war. The adolescent's understanding of reciprocity as a principle upon which morals and behavior can be

based did not necessarily lead the adolescent to abhor war. He also maintained that children's thinking about nuclear and conventional war lagged behind their general cognitive development. He suggested that teaching strategies be developed to correct this.

Solantus, Rimpela and Taipale (1984) examined the extend of fear children have about nuclear war in relation to their other fears. Their sample were 6851 Finnish children aged 12 to 18 years. They completed a questionnaire of 108 questions concerning demographic background, health habits, perceived health and psychosomatic symptons. The fear that these children had to war exceeded all other of their fears. As noted in other studies, as the age of the student increased the fear diminished. One-third of all respondents had talked about war and peace at home at least once. This study once again demonstrated that the threat of war was a common experience for the young and adolescents.

Gillies, Elwood and Hawtin (1984) conducted a similar study in England. Their research was conducted on 1669 students aged 11 to 16, from 14 randomly selected schools of the Nottingham School System. The students completed a questionnaire on health behavior. Part of the questionnaire allowed the students to write down three hopes and anxieties they had. One third of

the respondents listed fear of umemployment as their main anxiety, however, the second most commonly listed fear was fear of nuclear war. This finding was somewhat different than the findings of Solantus et al., (1984) because in their study they reported that for Finnish children, the greatest anxiety was fear of war. Gillies et al., (1984) suggested that one reason for the difference may be the proxmity of Finland to the USSR as well as the Finland's own Arms Control Policy.

Haas (1986) published a meta analysis on war and peace research that was carried on from 1963 to 1981. She examined 11 empirical studies and her common findings were the sources of information about war, the justification for war and the definition of peace not as war. Specifically, the most common sources of war information were parents, school and the media. Wrightman (1963) demonstrated once again that parents' perceptions and worries were reflected in their sons' worries. Cooper (1965) cited earlier, found that younger children, 7 and 8 years old, saw no justification for war because of the physical hurt involved whereas older students, 15 and older, could justify war when fought in defence of a nation, friendship, honor or aggressive attack. Tolley (1973), found that the more students watched the news, the more

informed they were about war events. Beardslee and Mack (1981) showed that children before the age of 12 learned about nuclear war. They also postulated that impulsive behaviors and rejection of delayed gratification were predictable by people who believed they had no future or are powerless to control their fate. Haas stated that the research conducted to date on the attitudes of children to war had only begun to scratch the surface and that the best research was conflict specific.

Doctor and Goldenring (1987) reported the results of a study they conducted in 1982. The aim of their study was to assess the prevalence of worry among adolescents about the threat of nuclear war and compare these findings with other sources of their worry. Their sample was 913 students aged 11 to 21 with the majority being 13 to 18 years old. The students had to complete a questionnaire consisting of demographic questions, a 20 item worry scale through which they could list their degrees of worry on the items listed and finally the Spielberger et al., (1970) State Trait Anxiety Scale. They found that the greatest concern of students was death of a parent, followed by fear of nuclear war. As in other studies, they found that older student worried less, that children below the age of 11 had limited knowledge about nuclear war, and that

the chief sources of information concerning war were television, school, newpapers parents, friends and radio respectively.

To confirm their results, Doctor and Goldenring (1986) conducted a meta analysis of studies to confirm their own results on teenage worry. McGirk (1985) found similar results in his study on students from Reno, Nevada. Diamond and Bachman (1986), from their nine year study 1975 to 1984 entitled Monitoring the Future, revealed a sharp increase in the numbers of teenagers worried about nuclear war. European studies, Solantus (1983) with Finnish students, Holmberg and Bergstrom (1985) with Swedish students and Chevian, Mack and associates (1983) with Russian students found that the greatest worry among teens was fear of nuclear war. The differences as to whether teen worry about nuclear war was number one or two on their list can in part be explained by the politics involved. European students would be closer to the events that would occur if war broke out, at first, and perhaps as a result of this, they suffered more anxiety .

Other studies by Gillies (1989) and Slee and Cross (1989) also confirm children's anxiety to the threat of nuclear war. Gillies ,in a follow up to her 1984 study of the hopes and worries of English adolescents found

that their two greatest concerns were employment opportunities and fear of war in that order. Her conclusions were based upon questionnaire results from 547 students from the original sample. This research was carried on in 1987. Using questionnaire and drawing techniques, Slee and Cross (1989) examined the fears of 1243 Australian children aged 4-19. The average age of the group was 10.1 years and males and females were almost equally represented. The students were divided into three age groups and in the two older groups 8-12 years and 13-19 years, fear of nuclear war was the reported as the number one fear.

The studies quoted above clearly indicate that research into the area of attitudes of children to war has been somewhat consistent. General conclusions that can be drawn from the studies include:

1. children of all ages are at one time or another concerned about the prospect of war;

2. younger children tend to be more fearful of war then older children;

3. children learn about war from many sources;

4. children at differing ages have various concepts of what war is, and

5. children in many countries experience similar fears towards war.

Most of the studies have been conducted with a questionnaire and interview technique. No study attempted to link personality type of the respondent with the answers provided. As well, very few have used drawings as a basis of getting children's perspectives to war.

Research into Psychological Type

Psychological Type is defined as preferences in the way people perceive and make judgements (Lawrence, 1982). It can also be defined for the purposes of this study as how children absorb information about their environment and how they then order and make decisions about information (Meisgeier & Murphy, 1988). Psychological type is also termed personality type in the literature.

Psychological type, as discussed earlier in this study, was a concept developed by Carl Gustav Jung to explain natural differences in human behavior. The preferences identified by Jung describe how people perceive information and how they reach decisions about it. Taking Jung's theory and researching it further has resulted in the the development of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and subsequently the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. Both tests claim to measure the four bipolar dimensions of Extroversion and

Introversion, Sensing and Intuition, Thinking and Feeling, and Judging and Perceiving. The Extroversion/Introversion and Judging/ Perceiving scales were termed attitudes while the Sensing/Intuition and Thinking/Feeling scales were termed functions.

Murphy-Meisgeier (1987), and Myers (1989) offered an extensive review of the meaning of type and how it works. They provided an explanation of how the two attitudes and two function operated. Extroversion/Introversion preferences assessed whether a person was orientated to the inner or outer world. The extrovert tended to be socialable, enjoyed people and liked to participate in various tasks. On the other hand, the introvert enjoyed the world of ideas and concepts, needed privacy and worked best when left alone or with a few people (Murphy-Meisgeier, 1987). The Sensing/Intuition scales assessed how a person perceives or takes in information. Sensing individuals received information through the five senses. These people tended to be practical, enjoyed facts and details. They also tended to focus on the present. By contrast, those people who prefer Intuition enjoyed imagining and creating possibilities. Their focus was on the future. Those individuals who preferred Thinking made decisions based on logical analysis and

were concerned with truth and facts. Feeling people considered the impact of the decision on others and were sensitive to the values of those around them (Briggs Myers, 1989). The process used in dealing with the outer world is either Judging/Perceiving. Those who preferred Judging tended to be organized and liked things decided upon and settled. However, individuals who preferred Perceiving tended to be adaptable and curious and liked to keep their options open.

Each individual is predisposed to one of the bi polar attitudes Extroversion/Introversion, Judging and Perceiving, and functions of Sensing/Intuition and Thinking/Feeling. An Individual's psychological type is a combination of two attitudes and functions preferred by a person. The possible combinations produced the sixteen personality types. Briggs Myers (1989), and Murphy-Meisgeier (1987) provided a full description of these types. A very brief description of the sixteen personality types based upon the research of Briggs Myers (1989) follows.

The Introverts/Sensing types can be divided into the four different personality types. The **ISTJ** person liked to see everything organized. They tended to make up their own minds as to what should be accomplished and worked toward it steadily. The **ISFJ**

individuals were conscientious, and lent stability to a group. They were also concerned with how people in the group felt. Those whose personality type was **ISTP** were usually interested in cause and effect and how mechanical things worked. They were also quiet and reserved and interested in organizing facts using logical principles. The **ISFP** personality type was described as one where the person was kind and modest. This person usually did not want to be a leader but preferred to follow. They did not like to be in a hurry to get things done nor did they like to force their opinions or attitudes on others.

The Extrovert/Sensing types likewise can be divided into four personality types The **ESTP** type was good at problem solving. They did not tend to worry and were at their best with real things that can be handled. They tended to be conservative in their values. The **ESFP** person was generally friendly and accepting. They used their common sense and practical ability with people as well as things. A person with the personality type **ESTJ** liked to run and organize activities. They were also practical and realistic and had a natural interest in mechanics and business. An individual who had the **ESFJ** personality type was generally warm-hearted and talkative. They needed praise to achieve their best performance. They were

mainly interested in things that affected peoples' lives directly and visibily.

Another four personality types were arrived at by examining the Intuitive and Introvert scales. The **INFJ** person could be described as one who was quietly forceful, and concerned for others. They were interested in serving the common good. **INTJ** types were interested in their own ideas and purposes. They tended to be critical, determined and sometimes stubborn. They were sometimes unwilling to make lesser concessions to win major concessions. The **INFP** person tended to undertake too much but somehow managed to get it done. They were friendly but often to absorbed in their work to be socialable. They tended to be little concerned with their physical surroundings. The **INTP** individual was quiet and reserved. This person tended to like to solve problems but little interested in socializing. He/She often had sharply defined interests.

The Intuitive/Extraverts had the following four personality types: **ENFP, ENTP, ENFJ and ENTJ**. The **ENFP** types were able to do almost anything that interested them. They were ready to help others and always seemed to have a solution to any problem. The **ENTP** types were also good at many things. They were likely to argue

either side of an argument. They tended to pursue one interest after another. The person with a **ENFJ** type was responsive and responsible. They have the ability to lead a discussion and are responsive to praise and criticism. The final personality under this category was **ENTJ**. The person with this type was usually well informed and enjoyed searching for knowledge. They sometimes appeared more confident than the situation would warrant.

With this brief overview of the sixteen personality types, a review of some of the research undertaken using the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children will be presented.

Much research has been undertaken using the MBTI. This research has been used to compare such things as attendance at college basketball games (Schurr et al.,1984), academic success at university (Schurr et al., 1986; Westerman et al., 1989), achievement on specific school subjects (Barker, 1985) as well as ways of preparing counselling strategies to help clients cope with serious personal tragedy such as death. The authors of the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children claimed that the questionnaire was able to determine information about individual differences in children through the identification of psychological

type (Meisgeier and Murphy, 1988). However, much of the research using this test has been relegated to the realm of the classroom, searching such areas as academic achievement and learning (Fourqurean, Meisgeier, Swank and Murphy, 1988; Fourqurean et al., 1988; Tobacyk, Wells and Springer, 1988). No research has been conducted to date using the MMTIC as a vehicle to probe personality type and issues such as attitudes to war.

Fourqurean, Meisgeier, Swank and Murphy (1988) explored the relationship between academic ability and personality type for samples of gifted, regular and special needs children. To explore the relationship, type preferences on the MMTIC were compared with student scores on the SRA Education Ability Series. Correlation coefficients were used to make the comparisons. Their sample consisted of 86 students in the upper elementary grades. Specifically, males and females were evenly distributed. There were 43 regular students, 24 special education students and 19 gifted. The researcher found a significant correlation between the J-P Scale and academic ability for the total group. Among the gifted students, 89% preferred perception. The majority of regular students had a preference for extroversion. Special education students favored sensing. According to the authors,

extraverts do better academically in school than introverts in preschool and primary school grades upto about 12-14 years old. At that point, introverts are superior to extroverts. The authors state that preference for sensing among special education students may be related to relatively low academic ability. As a result, special education students tend to choose more concrete or sequential strategies for encoding information.

Fourqurean, Meisgeier and Swank (1988) examined the link between psychological type and academic achievement. Their sample was 135 Grades 4 and 5 students from a parochial school in Arizona. Each student was given the MMTIC and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). The type preference would be compared to their performance on the ITBS. Using Chi Square and Cramers Coefficients, the researchers stated that there was a tendency for higher achieving students to prefer intuition while lower achieving students preferred sensing (44). They also stated that there was no relationship between the E-I Scale and achievement. These findings were somewhat different than in their earlier study. One possible reason, they suggested, was that these children were in a transitional stage where neither E nor the I preference presented an academic advantage.

Tobacyk, Wells and Springer (1988) completed research on type and self concept as it applied to Junior High School risk dropouts. The sample consisted of 76 Junior High students, 60 of whom were black and 16 were white. They attended schools in rural Louisiana. Personality type was measured using the MMTIC while self concept was measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). Students in their study showed E,S,F characteristics rather than those associated with academic achievement I,N,T. The researchers found little evidence of clear relationship between MMTIC continuous scores and TCSC scores.

Although there has been significant research exploring children's perspectives towards a specific war and warfare generally, no attempt has ever been made to examine the possibility of personality type having an influence on these attitudes. However, the theory of personality type would suggest that personality type might be a factor in how a person perceives an event like a war as well as how a person might make a decision based upon the information they received. Therefore with this theoretical basis as a framework an attempt will be made to compare the responses of those students in the sample with a clearly defined personality type with those responses of students of undetermined personality type.

Chapter III

Methodology

In Chapter 3, the procedures used to carry out the study will be discussed. Specifically, the chapter will describe the sample, the design of the study, the instrumentation, the procedures used to gather the data, and finally the methods used to analyze the collected raw data.

Sample

A decision was made to explore children's perceptions to warfare within the military community. The closest military community was Canadian Forces Base Edmonton and this community is unique in that it has its own school district and operates two K-9 schools with a combined population of about 560 students. Permission of the Superintendent of CFB Edmonton School District was sought to conduct the study in this jurisdiction. This request was in turn forwarded to the Official Trustee and finally to the Base Commander. A meeting was then held by Base, District, School Officials and the researcher to discuss the research methodology. Revisions were suggested and these were incorporated. With permission secured, a letter was drafted for the Official Trustee's signature. That

letter was forwarded to all the parents of Grade Five to Grade Eight students at Guthrie School. The letter was given to 94 students and they were asked to take it home to their parents. The letter, Appendix A, was designed to demonstrate that permission had been given to conduct the research, outline briefly the testing procedures that would be used and finally seek the parents' permission to allow their son or daughter to partake in the study. At the time of testing, each participant was also asked to complete a form through which they gave their permission to complete the research instruments.

Letters were sent home with 94 students, however, only 63 students were given parental permission to participate in the study. The subjects that participated in this study were 63 Grade Five to Grade Eight students. The gender mix of the sample was 35 males and 28 females. The age of the sample ranged from 9 to 14 years. With the administration of the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children to all the students in the sample, only 24 children in the sample were found to have all aspects of their personality type developed. These 24 students were primarily male 66.7 % and 75% of this clearly defined personality group were between the ages of 11 and 13.

Design

This study was primarily qualitative in nature. A descriptive research method was used to analyze several aspects of the study. The main purpose of the study was to ascertain the student's perceptions of war. A secondary purpose was to compare the responses of those students with a clearly defined personality type with the responses of students of undetermined personality type.

Instrumentation

Data were collected on the following variables: personality type, biographical information including sex, grade, as well as responses to the questionnaire and drawing exercise. The following three instruments were used, the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, a Perceptions of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire, and drawings, to gather data. Every student who volunteered to participate in the study completed the three instruments. Data were examined in two ways. First the data provided by the total sample were examined; second the data gathered from the 24 clearly defined personality students were correlated separately and compared with the responses of the undetermined personality type group.

Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator For Children

The Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children is a self report instrument in which the child is asked to chose between two preferences neither of which is wrong (Murphy & Meisgeier 1987). The instrument consists of seventy items designed to measure the same four preferences contained in the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. These four preferences are SN, TF, JP and EI. The first three preferences listed have 18 questions each, the last preference has 16. The instrument was designed for students from Grades Two through Grade Eight. The reading level of the test is considered most appropriate for Grades Three through Six but it can be read aloud to those students in Grade Two. The test can be administered in a group or individual setting and takes about thirty minutes. The student is to read each statement and fill in his preference for each question on the answer sheet. The child is encouraged to fill in his/her preference not that of their parent or teacher. The information gathered from the test provide the client with the psychological type of the child, and if possible identification of possible dominant function and information on learning styles. The Murphy-Meisgeier

Type Indicator for Children was used to determine the psychological type of each member of the sample.

The test can be machine or hand-scored. If hand -scored, temp plates for each preference type are placed over the answer sheet and the responses are scored as indicated on the plate. Depending on the child's score, a preference is arrived at. However, if no preference is determined, the score will fall within the U band on the score sheet. Students exhibiting a score in a U-Band score do not have a clearly defined personality type. This represented 39 of the 63 students that took part in the study. Only 24 students had a clearly defined personality type. One purpose of the study was to compare the responses of those students that have a clearly defined personality type with those that do not.

The content validity of the instrument as determined by 21 individuals familiar with psychological type concepts was very high indicating that the items in the test accurately reflected the concepts of psychological type (Murphy & Meisgeier, 1987). The internal-consistency split half reliability was rated at .62 for EI preference, .68 for SN preference, .65 for TF preference and .72 for JP preference. The amount of research carried out with

this assessment tool was limited and all of the information reporting validity and reliabilty data came from the test's manual.

Perception to War Attitude Questionnaire

The Perceptions of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire (Appendix B) used in this study was similar in construction to Tolley's 1973 questionnaire. Several researchers including Tizard (1984), Haas (1986) and Roscoe, Stevenson, & Yacobozzi (1988) have quoted Tolley's work. In fact, Roscoe, Stevenson & Yacobozzi (1988) conducted a study with Grade 7 students using a modified version of Tolley's questionnaire. Their modification was the removal of questions concerned with the Vietnam War. Their focus of study was the military involvement of the United States in Latin America. Based upon the topic of the present study, the nature of the material covered in Tolley's questionnaire, the fact that his study and its results were quoted in several other works, the decision was made to use his study in this research. In the present study, one modification was to replace the questions on the Vietnam War with those on the Persian Gulf War. Another modification was to add a drawing section in which the students could draw a war scene of their choice. Prior to conducting the

research for this study, the questionnaire was given to the Grade 5 through Grade 8 teachers of the students to read and to determine if the students could answer the questions posed. The questionnaire was also discussed at some length with a thesis advisor before being given to the students.

Specifically, the questionnaire used in this study consisted of five parts. Part A, the first four questions were used to obtain demographic information. Part B, questions 5 to 17 inclusive, were factual questions used to determine a student's knowledge of the Persian Gulf War. Part C, statements 18 to 40 inclusive, were designed to obtain attitudes and opinions of the students about warfare. Part D, questions 41 to 47 sought information about where each subject learned about events in the Persian Gulf. Part E was the drawing exercise. Each student in the sample completed the questionnaire.

Drawing Exercise

In Part E, each student was asked to complete a war scene (Appendix C) of their choice using the paper and colored pencils provided. There was no attempt to direct the students as to what war scene to draw. This latitude would enable each member of the sample to draw

their own war scene. It was hoped that by doing this, each drawing would be a reflection of what each student remembered about war. Each student was given an 8 1/2 by 11 inch blank sheet of paper. As well, each student was provided with a lead pencil, an eraser and a package of colored pencils. The colored pencils were of the following colors: black, blue, green, violet, yellow, red and brown. The students had approximately twenty minutes to draw their picture. Once the drawing was finished, each participant was asked to complete the following three questions:

What does your picture mean to you?
How would you describe your drawing?
How do you feel about war?

Procedure

The subjects were given three instruments to complete. The students were first given the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children, a seventy item questionnaire designed to determine the subject's personality type. Second, each subject was given a 48 item Perception of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire. Third, each student was asked to complete a war scene of their choice using the paper and colored pencils provided. Once the drawing was

finished, each participant was asked to complete the following three questions:

What does your picture mean to you?
How would you describe your drawing?
How do you feel about war?

The researcher did not particpate in the collecting of the data. A teacher was trained by the researcher to administer the questionnaires and the drawing exercise. The teacher was also provided with a set of instructions (Appendix D) that were to be followed in each testing session. This was an attempt to provide uniformity in giving direction to the different groups of students that constituted the sample.

The testing was done in a group setting by grade with each complete testing situation lasting about eighty minutes. Those students who agreed to participate in the study were taken out of their regular classes so that the testing could be accomplished. Each student was provided with a file folder containing all the testing instruments as well as colored pencils and regular lead pencils with erasers. Upon completion of the data gathering session, the group returned to their class.

Ethical Considerations

The study was reviewed by the Department of Educational Psychology Ethics Review Committee and permission was granted to conduct the study. Written permission was sought from both parents and testing participants. Parents were also informed that the data collected would be statistical in nature and that confidentially would be assured in the several ways. In order to protect the privacy of those students participating in the study, the researcher did not conduct the data gathering. Each student drew a random number from a set of numbers ranging from 1 to 100. The number was then affixed to all the testing material. At the end of each session, those numbers drawn were withdrawn from the number range and destroyed. The children were told that they could stop participating in the study at any time. The researcher was also available to address concerns and questions by parents.

Analysis

The data obtained from the instruments was analyzed in several ways. First, the data gathered from the total group were analyzed to determine the students knowledge, attitudes and opinions to the

Persian Gulf War and warfare generally. Secondly, using the variable of gender of the respondents, the data were analyzed again to determine if there were any changes in the rate of response to the questions. Descriptive statistics were gathered on each of these analyses using the SPSS program. Thirdly, the sample's Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children tests were scored and a comparison with the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample was conducted. Next, only those questionnaires submitted by those students showing clearly defined personality types were analyzed. Their reponses were then compared with those of undetermined personality type. Such a procedure would help to determine if the responses of students with a clearly defined personality type were different than those of an undetermined personality type. Such a finding would have significance. There would be indications that personality type does affect opinions and attitudes to war. Again using SPSS, chi-squares were calculated from questionnaire responses to determine statistical differences among personality types. Descriptive statistics was gathered on the data. The results are presented in table format.

Crook (1985) stated that the contents of children's drawings may provide an insight into their thoughts and feelings about a subject. Thomas & Silk

(1990) maintained that the information contained in a child's drawing depended upon the children's knowledge of the topic, their interpretation of the important aspects of the topic and their ability to reproduce these factors in graphic form. Children, as their age increased, were more likely to put distinguishing features into their drawings of different topics (Thomas & Silk 1986). The drawings of those students in the present study were examined to determine their visual imagery of war. This was done by content analysis, that was recording every feature of each picture by the age of the student. Another object of using the drawings was to determine the feelings and visual themes represented by the students from the pictures they had drawn. Possible themes that might be presented by the students included violence, death, determination, use of air power, and man against man struggles. To conclude, the drawings were part of the Perceptions of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire and as a result allowed all students to express graphically how they felt about the topic. This task would be especially useful for those who may have had difficulty expressing themselves on the questionnaire.

All Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children protocals were hand-scored using the scoring templates. Those students in the sample that demonstrated clear

personality type were further analyzed to determine how representative this sample is when compared to the normative base population. Such an analysis was done using SRTT, the Selection Ratio Type Table PC Program developed by Granade, Hatfield, Smith & Beasley (1987). This program allowed for comparison of one type table to another type table to determine if there are any significant differences. This program yielded a format which contains a conventional 16 cell type table. Besides the type, each cell includes the number of those in the sample of that type, the percentage of that type when compared to the whole sample and finally the Index of Type (I) which reflected the percentage of the type in the sample in comparison to the base population. Statistical significance of the ratios was established through a series of 2 x 2 chi- square calculations with one degree of freedom. If cell frequencies were 5 or less, the SRTT program computed a Fisher's exact probability instead of a chi-square.

Delimitations of the Study

The major delimitation of the study was that it investigated a very specific sample, children of military personnel who were enrolled in Grades 5-8 inclusive on one military base in Canada.

Limitations of the Study

1. A major limitation of the study was the size of the sample. With only 63 students in the total sample and 24 students with clearly defined personality types, it was difficult to generalize to a larger population. The results of the study will be limited to those students chosen from specific population.

2. The questionnaire and the MMTIC are self-report forms and as a result, the student's true opinions may not be expressed truthfully. However, the researcher marked all tests and therefore there was uniformity in scoring.

3. The nature of the war, and its possible effects on their families and parental opinions towards the war may have contributed substantially to the sample's responses.

4. The fact that 31 of the 94 students asked to participate in the study were not allowed to by their parents may have affected the results obtained in this study.

Chapter IV

Results

The data analysis can be divided into five sections. First, student demographics; second, student knowledge about the Persian Gulf War; third, student attitudes to the idea of war itself both as a group and by gender; fourth, a comparison of the responses made by students with clearly defined and undetermined personality type and finally, an examination of the drawings. In this chapter, the results of the data analysis will be presented.

Student Demographics

The sample, as displayed in Table 1, consisted of 63 Grade Five to Eight students inclusive with 24 of these students, the sub sample, having clearly defined personality type. Fifty-six percent of the total sample were male. However, in the sub sample, the number of males compared to females was double. Grade distribution for the total sample was almost identical for each grade surveyed. The majority of the students, 73%, were between the ages of 11 and 13 and 15.9% of them had both parents as Forces members.

Table 1

School Sample Description

	Sample (N = 63)	Clear Type (N = 24)	Undetermined Type (N = 39)
Male	35	16	19
Female	28	8	20
Grade Distribution			
5	15	4	11
6	17	6	11
7	13	8	6
8	16	6	10
Age Distribution			
9	1	1	
10	7	1	6
11	17	7	10
12	13	4	9
13	16	7	9
14	9	4	5
Parents			
Father	50	18	32
Mother	3	1	2
Both	10	5	5

Question 1. What perceptions (knowledge, feelings and attitudes) did the total sample have in regard to the Persian Gulf War specifically and warfare generally?

Persian Gulf War Knowledge

The analysis of the data regarding the students' knowledge of the Persian Gulf War indicated that the majority of the pupils had an fairly good understanding of some of the terminology, events and leaders that took part. Table 2 provided a comparison of student correct responses to the specific knowledge questions posed.

The majority of the students, approximately 92%, 98% and 95% respectively, correctly identified the cause of the war, the leader of Iraq and the fact that the war ended by means of a ceasefire. The rate of response to question 11 produced a significant Chi Square at the .05 level. Forty-five students, about 71% of the sample, rightly chose the fact that Isreal was fired upon by Iraqi missiles. More students (N=55), 87% were able to correctly identify the names of two types of missiles. Questions regarding terminology posed the most difficulty to the sample. Only about 26% (N=15) of the students could identify what a smart bomb was and slighty more, approximately

32% (N=16), could define the term collateral damage. A similarly low response rate (N=24), 38% was achieved when the students responded correctly that Iraq threatened to use chemical weapons but did not. Only 57% of the respondents could identify the leader of the Coalition Forces and the fact that the Coalition Forces used their combined air forces first against Iraq. This latter response was significant at the $p<.05$ level. The students in the sample were more successful (N=54), 86% in choosing the present leader of Iraq and (N=50), 79% in establishing the link between the Persian Gulf War and the Kurdish Refugee problem.

Table 2

Persian Gulf War Knowledge

Question #	Stem	Correct Responses (N = 63)	%
5.	Cause	58	91.9
6.	Leader	62	98.4
7.	Isreal	45	71.4
8.	Missiles	55	87.3
9.	Smart Bomb	15	25.8
10.	Damage	18	31.7
11.	Ceasefire	60*	95.2
12.	Military Leader	35	56.5
13.	Chem Weapons	24	38.1
14.	Forces	36*	57.1
15.	Canada	33	52.4
16.	Iraq's Leader	54	85.7
17.	Kurdish Problem	50	79.4

* $p<.05$

Table 3

General Opinions About the War

Item #	Statement	Percentage (N = 63) Yes	No	Don't Know
18.	Wars are always wrong.	34.9	34.9	30.2
19.	Wars are sometimes needed.	57.1	33.3	9.5
20.	Wars are always worthwhile.	1.6	82.5	15.9
21.	Wars are a good thing.	4.8	88.9	6.3
22.	Wars bring loss.....	96.8	3.2	
23.	Everybody should	52.4	27.0	20.6
24.	Stopping a war is hard.	90.5*	1.6	7.9
25.	Canada did the	64.5	12.9	22.6
26.	War is boring.	19.0	63.5	17.5
27.	Everything about war is bad.	38.1	50.8	11.1
28.	I felt sad when Canada	72.6	27.4	
29.	Good things can happen.....	79.4	20.6	
30.	The war was considered.....	68.3	31.7	
31.	Killing people during	41.9	58.1	
32.	People are basically good.	72.6	27.4	
33.	It is important to	98.4	1.6	
34.	I like wars.	6.3	93.7	
35.	We should follow the	67.7*	32.3	
36.	I felt guilty about the war.	20.6	79.4	
37.	People are basically bad.	4.8	95.2	
38.	We must always follow rules.	68.3	31.7	
39.	I did alot of thinking	55.6	44.4	
40.	Cda's role in military.....	71.0	29.0	

* $p < .05$

The students, as witnessed by their responses recorded in Table 3, appeared to be providing inconsistent opinions when it came to their appreciation of the impact of war generally. The students seemed to have difficulty in agreeing with item 18. The responses to ths question were almost equal with almost one-third of the sample falling into each possible response. A significant Chi Square at the $p<.05$ level was recorded for statement 24, Stopping war is hard. Almost 91% of the respondents agreed with this statement. A slim majority of the students, 50.8% believed that not everything about war was bad. Similarly, approximately (N=36), 57% believed that wars are sometimes needed and (N=52), 80% felt that good things could happen as a result of a war. Almost 64% of the students felt that warfare was not boring. This tends to contradict the fact that (N=52), 82.5 % of the sample stated that wars are not worthwhile, 88.9% view warfare as a bad event and (N=59), 93.7% did not like warfare. Another interesting finding was the fact that a minority (N=36) 41.9% believed that it was permissable to kill during a war.

Specifically, with regards to the Persian Gulf War, the student responses in Table 3 indicated that despite the fact that 72.6% of the students felt sad when Canada went to war, almost (N=40), 65% of the

sample believed that Canada did the right thing by sending their men and women to fight in the Persian Gulf. Due to the nature of the employment of their parents, it was not unexpected that almost two-thirds of the students reported that the war caused their families' stress.

As presented in Table 3, the subjects provided some very interesting answers to questions regarding man generally and his/her relationship with the government. Many students N=45 expressed the view that people are basically good, however, in answering the same question from the negative point of view, a larger number N=60 refuted the statement that men are basically bad. About 67% of the students agreed that we should follow the advice of our leaders during war even if we disagree with what they are saying. This response rate produced a Chi square significant at the $p<.05$ level. The students (N=44) believe that Canada's role should be one of preserving the peace.

Table 4 presents the student sources of information about the Persian Gulf War. The overwhelming source of information for the students was television with (N=57), 93.4% of the sample having watched the Persian Gulf War on television. This response rate was significant at the $p<.05$ level. Many

of the students approximately 76%, discussed the war with their parents whereas about (N=44), 70% read about the war in newspapers and magazines. The students, about 57%, talked about the war with their teacher. Despite the apparent interest in the Persian Gulf War, the war did not appear to be something the majority of students wanted to talk about among themselves because a relatively low percentage of only 36% discussed the war with their classmates.

Table 5 presented the findings to the question which asked, What person or thing did you learn the most about the war? Almost half the respondents, about 47%, claim to have learned more about the Persian Gulf War from television than anywhere else. Other news media such as books and magazines were an important learning tool for only 8% of the respondents. Within the family context, the most important source of learning was their parents with approximately 31% maintaining this view. Older brothers/sisters were rated very low by the sample because only a small number (N=2) felt this group was thought of as the most important source of learning. Interestingly, teachers also did play a role in providing knowledge about war to their students. In this study, only 11% stated that teachers were their most important learning resource about the war even though this was a Canadian Forces

Base where the information was being taught by the teachers. The low percentage is not reflective of the work and time spent by the teachers on this topic. As well, the media visited classrooms for several days in a row immediately after the war began and numerous discussions were held by the teachers and students on the topic of the War. In spite of the fact that 36% of the sample discussed the war with their classmates, no one in the sample considered a classmate to be the most important learning resource about the war.

Table 4

Student Sources of Information About the War

Item #	Source	Percentage Yes	No
41.	Television	93.4 *	6.6
42.	Teacher	56.5	43.5
43.	Parents	75.8	24.2
44.	Classmates	35.5	64.5
45.	Newspapers/magazines	69.4	30.6

* $p<.05$

Table 5

Most Important Source Of Learning about the War

Item # 46	Sources of Learning	Percentage (N= 63)
a.	Parents	30.6
b.	Older Brothers/Sisters	3.2
c.	Teacher	11.3
d.	Television	46.8
e.	Radio	0
f.	Books and Newspapers	8.1
g.	Friends	0

Table 6

Witnessing Fighting and Career Consideration

Item #	Percentage Yes	No	Don't Know
47. See fighting	64.5	35.5	
48. Career	29	43.5	27.4

By examining Table 6, almost two-thirds of those students who responded to the questionnaire told of seeing men and women really fighting in the Persian Gulf War. With regards to a career in the forces, only 29% of the students would consider it as a career option, 43.5% said no and 27.4% did not know.

Question 2. Did the gender of the repondent have any effect on their perception (knowledge, feelings and attitudes) to the Persian Gulf War and warfare generally?

From the data displayed in Table 7, it is apparent that on 9 of the 13 questions posed, the boys answered correctly more often. The data gathered would indicate, inspite of the small percentage differences on several of these 9 questions, that generally speaking the boys had more general knowledge about the

Persian Gulf War than the girls. This is particularly apparent when asked to respond to questions about equipment and tactics. The response rate for males and females on the item 8, produced a significant Chi square at the $p<.05$ level. As well, the girls had greater difficulty identifying the leader of the Coalition Forces than the boys. With regards to question 14, the rate of response produced a significant Chi square at the $p<.01$ level. The boys over the girls, by nearly a two to one margin, correctly identified the use of the air forces of the Coalition Forces.

Table 7

Persian Gulf War Knowledge Based Upon Sample Gender

Item #	Stem	Correct Responses in % Male	Female
5.	Cause	97.1	85.7
6.	Leader	100	96.4
7.	Isreal	77.1	64.3
8.	Missiles	97.1*	75.0
9.	Smart Bomb	25.7	21.4
10.	Damage	34.3	42.9
11.	Ceasefire	94.3	96.4
12.	Military Leader	65.7	44.4
13.	Chem Weapons	54.3	42.9
14.	Forces	74.3**	35.7
15.	Canada	45.7	60.7
16.	Iraq's Leader	85.7	85.7
17.	Kurdish Problem	77.1	82.1

p>.05 ** P<.01

Table 8

General Opinions About War Based Upon Sample Gender

Item #	Statement	Percentage (N = 63) Yes M/F	No M/F	Don't Know M/F
18.	Wars .. wrong.	31.4/39.3	40.0/28.6	28.6/32.1
19.	Wars .. needed.	62.9/50.0	28.6/39.3	8.6/10.7
20.	Wars .. worthwhile.	2.9/0	82.9/82.1	14.3/17.9
21.	Wars .. a good	8.6/0	85.7/92.9	5.7/ 7.1
22.	Wars bring loss...	97.1/96.3	2.9/3.7	0/0
23.	Everybody should ..	49.3/55.1	29.4/24.1	27.5/20.7
24.	Stopping .. hard.	97.1/79.3	2.9/0	0 /20.7**
25.	Canada did the ..	63.6/65.5	18.1/6.9	18.1/27.6
26.	War is boring..	23.5/13.8	55.9/68.9	20.5/17.2
27.	Everything .. bad.	35.3/41.4	55.9/44.8	8.8/13.8
28.	I felt sad ...	63.7/86.2	36.3/13.8	0/0
29.	Good things ...	76.4/82.7	23.6/17.2	
30.	The war was... .	.58.8/79.3	41.2/20.4	
31.	Killing people ...	39.4/44.8	60.6/55.2	
32.	People . .. good.	70.6/78.6	29.4/21.4	
33.	It is important .	97.1/100	2.9/0	
34.	I like wars.	8.8/0	81.2/100	
35.	We should follow .	66.7/66.5	33.3/33.5	
36.	I felt guilty ..	17.6/24.1	82.4/75.9	
37.	People ... bad.	5.8/3.5	94.2/96.5	
38.	We must .follow...	67.6/65.5	32.4/34.5	
39.	I did alot of ...	58.8/48.3	41.2/51.7	
40.	Cda's role in	84.8/58.6	15.2/41.4*	

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$

The samples' attitudes toward warfare did indeed tend to reflect a sexual bias on some issues when examined in terms of the results presented in Table 8. Those statements in which there is at least a 10% difference in opinion will be examined further. Statement 24, Stopping a war is hard, produced a signifcant Chi square at the $p<.01$ level. 97.1% of the males agreed with this statement whereas 79.3% of the females agreed. The boys, 62.9%, believe that wars are sometimes needed whereas only 50% of the girls responded in a like manner. Both sexes share similar beliefs when it came to statements regarding the worthwhileness of war, whether or not wars are good, war brings loss of life and damage to property, everybody should be willing to die for his/hers country's freedom and support to Canada's involvement in the Persian Gulf War. The females 86.2% were sad when Canada went to war whereas only 63.7% of the male respondents felt the same way. The war was also more stressful to the girls than the boys despite the fact that boys (58.8%) appeared to do more thinking about the war than the girls (48.3%). The males 84.8% were more supportive in the belief that Canada's role in military action should only be one of perserving the peace. The females 58.6% were less supportive of this action. The response rate to the statement, Canada's

role in military action should only be one of perserving the peace, produced a significant Chi square at the $p<.05$ level.

The data as presented in Table 9 revealed very little difference in percentages in three out of five sources about how both males and females learned about the Persian Gulf War. Girls also tended to get more information from classmates than did boys and boys tended to get more information from newspapers and magazines than did girls.

Table 9

Student Sources of War Information Based Upon Gender

Item #	Source	Percentage Yes		Percentage No	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
41.	Television	93.9	92.8	6.1	7.2
42.	Teacher	55.8	55.2	44.2	44.8
43.	Parents	75.8	75.8	24.2	24.2
44.	Classmates	30.3	41.3	69.7	58.7
45.	Newspapers/Mags	75.7	62.1	24.3	37.9

Table 10

Most Important Source Of Learning about the War Using Sex of the Sample as a Variable

Item # 46	Sources of Learning	Percentage (N= 63) Male	Female
a.	Parents	24.2	37.9
b.	Older Brothers/Sisters	3.0	3.4
c.	Teacher	12.1	10.3
d.	Television	54.5	41.4
e.	Radio	0	0
f.	Books and Newspapers	6.1	6.9
g.	Friends	0	0

The most important source of learning for the sample as shown in Table 10 was distinguished by sex in two areas. Females, 37.9% and 41.4%, considered their parents and television the most important sources of information about the war. On the other hand, boys, 54.5%, felt that television was the most important source of information followed by their parents with 24.2%. The rest of the information mediums were rated in importance by approximately the same percentages, respectively, by both the males and females in the sample.

Table 11

Witnessing Fighting and Career Considerations by Gender

Item #		Percentage		
Know		Yes	No	Don't
		M/F	M/F	M/F
47.	See fighting	69.7/55.2	30.3/44.8	
48.	Career	33.3/24.1	33.3/55.2	33/3/20.7

With regards to considering joining the Canadian forces, the males were undecided with approximately one third being represented in each category, as shown in Table 11. The females appeared more definite with 55.2% stating that they would not consider the Canadian Forces as a career option.

Question 3. How did the sub sample population, those 24 students from the study who were found to have a clearly defined personality type, compare with the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample population?

As can be ascertained by examining Table 12, the percentage of clearly defined personality type (CDPT) in the sub sample was almost identical to the percentage achieved by the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. In the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children sample of 1499 students, 39% of the population had a clearly defined personality type. In the small sample of 63 used in this study, 38% of the total had a clearly defined personality type whereas 62% of the sample had an undetermined personality type (UDPT).

Table 12

Clear versus Undetermined Type Preferences

Sample	Clear Type	Undetermined Type
School	24 (38%)	39 (62%)
MMTIC	578 (39%)	921 (61%)

Table 13 presents an examination of the sixteen possible personality types determined to be part of the of the school sample and compared these results to the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample. INFP students who comprised 20.8% of the school sample were over represented in comparison to the 8.5% INFP types found in the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample. This is significant at the $p<.05$ level. On individual scales P types were over represented $P<.05$, therefore J types were underrepresented. The school sample had 87.5% P types compared to 65.8% in the normative sample. Upon examination of various two letter combinations, the IP was significantly over represented at the $p<.05$ level. The school sample had 33.3% IP students compared to 17.6% for the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children group.

In conclusion, the school sample was quite similar to the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample . There was only one significant difference in four letter types and that was the INFP type. As well, the individual scale P and the combination IP were over represented.

Table 13

Type Distribution of School Sample and Comparison with the MMTIC Normative Sample Excluding U-Band Cases N=24

SENSING types with THINKING		SENSING types with FEELING		INTUITIVE types with FEELING		INTUITIVE types with THINKING	
ISTJ		ISFJ		INFJ		INTJ	
N=	0	N=	1	N=	0	N=	0
%=	0.00	%=	4.17	%=	0.00	%=	0.00
I=	0.00	I=	1.09	I=	0.00	I=	0.00
ISTP		ISFP		INFP "		INTP	
N=	2	N=	1	N=	5	N=	0
%=	8.33	%=	4.17	%=	20.83	%=	0.00
I=	2.01	I=	1.20	I=	2.46	I=	0.00
ESTP		ESFP		ENFP		ENTP	
N=	2	N=	4	N=	7	N=	0
%=	8.33	%=	16.67	%=	29.17	%=	0.00
I=	2.01	I=	0.93	I=	1.21	I=	0.00
ESTJ		ESFJ		ENFJ		ENTJ	
N=	0	N=	2	N=	0	N=	0
%=	0.00	%=	8.33	%=	0.00	%=	0.00
I=	0.00	I=	0.51	I=	0.00	I=	0.00

			N	%
J		E	15	62.50
U		I	9	37.50
D I		S	12	50.00
G N		N	12	50.00
I T		T	4	16.67
N R		F	20	83.33
G O		J	3	12.50
	V	P	21	87.50
P E		IJ	1	4.17
E R		IP	8	33.33
R T		EP	13	54.17
C S		EJ	2	8.33
E		ST	4	16.67
P		SF	8	33.33
T		NF	12	50.00
I E		NT	0	0.00
V X		SJ	3	12.50
E T		SP	9	37.50
S R		NP	12	50.00
	A	NJ	0	0.00
J V		TJ	0	0.00
U E		TP	4	16.67
D R		FP	17	70.83
G T		FJ	3	12.50
I S		IN	5	20.83
N		EN	7	29.17
G		IS	4	16.67
		ES	8	33.33

Note: % - percent of total choosing this group who fell into this type.
1 - self-selection index: ratio of % of type in the school sample to % in the MMTIC sample.
" p .05 # p .01 * p .001

Question 4. How does this sub sample population compare in relation to the percentages of each bi polar preference scale including U band cases to the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample?

Table 14 reflected the data gathered from all the students who wrote the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children whether or not they had a clearly defined personality type. The table presented the percentages for the bipolar preference scales Extroversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving. Those people who did not register a perference fell into the U-band or undefined preference. It is clear that for the most part both groups have similar percentage U band distributions.

Table 14

Bi Polar Preferences Including U Band Percentages

Preference	Sample (n = 63) %	MMTIC (n = 1499) %
E	44	55
I	25	20
U	31	25
S	41	48
N	29	30
U	30	22
T	16	16
F	72	69
U	12	19
J	9	28
P	69	53
U	22	19

Question 5. What differences in response occurs when 1 comparison is made between answers supplied by those study participants identified as having a clearly defined personality type and those who had an undefined personality type?

Table 15

Comparison of War Knowledge by Clearly Defined and Undetermined Personality Type

Item #	Stem	Correct Responses		%	
		Clear Type (N=24)	Undetermined Type (N=39)	Clear Type	Undetermined Type
5.	Cause	22	36	91.3	92.3
6.	Leader	24	38	100	97.4
7.	Isreal	20	25	83.3	64.1
8.	Missiles	22	33	91.7	87.3
9.	Smart Bomb	9	6	37.5	15.4
10.	Damage	4	14	25.0	35.8
11.	Ceasefire	22	38	91.3	97.4
12.	Military Leader	12	23	50.0	59.9
13.	Chem Weapons	13	11	54.2	28.3
14.	Forces	13	23	54.2	59.9
15.	Canada	14	19	58.3	48.7
16.	Iraq's Leader	19	35	79.2	89.7
17.	Kurdish Problem	20	30	83.3	76.9

The data displayed in Table 15 provides the response rate of the clearly defined personality type (CDPT) and those of undetermined personality type

(UDPT) to the knowledge questions concerning the Persian Gulf War. In seven of thirteen responses, those with clearly defined personality type responded correctly in greater numbers than those of undetermined personality type. However, when examined more closely, only on four questions was the correct response rate difference 10% or greater. Those particular questions had to do with the definiton of a smart bomb, Canada's contribution to the war effort, the use of chemical weapons and finally recognition that Iraq had fired missiles at Isreal. The questions regarding the definition of a smart bomb and the use of chemical weapons were the ones that produced the greatest difference. In answering the question on the smart bomb, those with a CDPT had a correct response rate of almost 38% whereas those of UDPT had a response rate of about 16%. A higher percentage was recorded, 54%, by those with a CDPT answering correctly the question regarding the use of chemical weapons. Only 28% of the students with an UDPT answered this question correctly.

Table 16

General Opinions About War

Item #	Statement	Number (N = 63) Yes	No	Don't Know
		CDPT/UDPT	CDPT/UDPT	CDPT/UDPT
18.	Wars are always wrong.	8/14	8/14	8/11
19.	Wars are ... needed.	12/24"	9/13	3/3
20.	Wars are ... worthwhile.	0/1	18/34	6/4
21.	Wars are a good thing.	1/2 "	23/33	0/4
22.	Wars bring loss.....	24/36	0/2	
23.	Everybody should	11/22	7/10	6/7
24.	Stopping a war is hard.	20/37	0/1	4/1
25.	Canada did the	18/22"	3/5	3/11
26.	War is boring.	6/6	16/24	2/9
27.	Everything .. war is bad	6/18"	15/17	3/4
28.	I felt sad when ...	16/29	8/9	
29.	Good things can happen....	20/30	4/9	
30.	The war was considered...	16/27	8/12	
31.	Killing people during ..	7/19"	16/20	
32.	People are ..... good	17/28	7/10	
33.	It is important to	24/38	0/1	
34.	I like wars.	2/2	22/37	
35.	We should follow the	14/28"	10/10	
36.	I felt guilty ... the war.	4/9	20/30	
37.	People are basically bad.	1/2	23/37	
38.	We must ... follow rules.	16/23	8/12	
39.	I did alot of thinking ...	13/22	11/17	
40.	Cda's role in military....	18/26	6/12	

" Indicates percentage difference of at least 10%

When examining responses in Table 16 to general opinions of warfare using personality type as a variable, there were only five statements that generate any percentage response differences of 10% or more. On four out of the five statements, the CDPT sub sample is not as willing to agree with the statements as those in the UPDT group. In response to the statement, Wars are sometimes needed, only (N=12) 50% of those with a CDPT answered yes to that question whereas (N=24) 61% of those with an UDPT answered in a similar fashion. In regard to the statement involving Canada's involvement in the Persian Gulf War, (N=18) 75% of those with a CDPT agreed with this statement while (N=22) 56% of those with UDPT approved of this action. Twenty-five percent of the CDPT stated that everything about war is bad. By contrast 46.2% of the UDPT group agreed with this statement. Approximately 29% of the CDPT agreed that it was permissable to kill during a war whereas about 49% of the UDPT concurred. The UDPT sub sample (N=28) about 72% were more willing to follow the advice of their leaders during war whereas only 58% of the CDPT sub group would take this course of action.

Table 17

Student Sources of Information About the War

Item #	Source	Percentage Yes CDPT/UDPT	Percentage No CDPT/UDPT
41.	Television	91.6/94.6	8.9/5.4
42.	Teacher	54.2/57.9	45.8/42.1
43.	Parents	79.2/73.7	21.8/26.3
44.	Classmates	37.5/34.2	62.5/65.8
45.	Newspapers/magazines	70.8/68.4	29.2/31.6

The information in Table 17 revealed that there was really no difference in the way both the CDPT and UDPT groups gathered their information about the Persian Gulf war. The three most important sources of information were television, parents and magazines/newspapers respectively. For both groups approximately 55% used the teacher as a source of information about the war which was well behind the number of students ,about 70%, that depended upon newspapers and magazines for information.

Table 18

Most Important Source Of Learning about the War

Item # 46	Sources of Learning	Percentage (N= 63) CDPT	UDPT
a.	Parents	30.4	31.5
b.	Older Brothers/Sisters	4.2	2.7
c.	Teacher	12.5	10.8
d.	Television	41.6	43.7
e.	Radio	0	0
f.	Books and Newspapers	8.3	7.8
g.	Friends	0	0

There was really little difference in the way both groups identified their most important source of learning about the war. Both groups identified the television as the number one source followed by parents and teachers in that order. It was interesting to note that although about 70% of the respondents claimed to use newspapers and magazines as a source of information about the war, about 8% considered this print media an important source of information.

Question 6. What did the children's drawing tell us about how they view war?

The drawings were presented simply as a projection of how the students saw war. Table 19 presented a list of the items by occurrance that the students put into their diagrams. The most common images found in the drawings in numeric order were soldiers, guns, killed or injured soldiers, planes and words. The most common colors in all age groups were red, black, brown and green. Red was used almost exclusively to signify an injured or dead soldier. Green was used on almost all vehicles and tanks represented as well as the clothing of the soldiers. All of the pictures expressed the common themes of violence associated with war and the awesome power of the weapons of war. All but one picture had drawings of soldiers involved in the fighting.

Table 19

Image Occurrance Per Student Drawing by Age

Item	Age				
	10	11	12	13	14
Soldiers	5	12	7	9	5
Rain	1	-	-	1	2
Clouds	2	3	3	3	3
Sun	2	1	-	3	2
Rainbow	1	-	-	-	-
Planes	2	9	5	7	5
Tanks	2	4	3	5	4
Guns/Rifles	-	10	7	10	6
Falling Bombs	2	13	5	5	4
Explosions	1	10	5	7	6
Injured People	3	10	3	8	6
Words	2	6	5	6	6
Buildings	1	-	3	6	3
Paratroopers	-	5	-	-	-
Helicopters	-	2	-	-	-
Rockets	-	4	-	1	-
Minefield	-	1	-	-	-
Trucks	-	-	1	2	2
Coffin	-	-	1	-	-
Dynamite	-	-	1	1	-
Crosses	-	-	1	-	1
Civilians	-	-	-	1	2
Poppies	-	-	1	-	-
Flags	-	-	1	1	-
Oil Wells	-	-	2	1	-
Saddam	-	-	-	1	-
Boats	-	-	1	1	-
Arrows	-	1	-	-	-
Tree	-	-	2	-	-

A representative selection of these pictures is included in Annex E. The theme of death and injury as a result of war was found in four of the eight pictures. Figure One captured this theme better than the rest. This picture was drawn by a 13 year old grade 7 girl whose personality type was ESFP. The scene was a battlefield in which were displayed the weapons of war: cannons, rifles and tanks. There also appeared to be no live people but rather the bloody remains of soldiers laying beside their weapons. Even the vegetation was destroyed. The central focus of the drawing was a red pool, probably symbolizing a pool of blood. The blood appeared to be collecting from the bodies and hills around the pool. The girl, in describing her drawing, stated that war was darkness and blood whereas peace was green and full of life. She also stated that she hated war but she believed that it was sometimes necessary. She claimed that her picture showed that even though there are wars, there can be peace.

Another theme that came out of the Persian Gulf War was the effective use of air power. Figures Two and Three used this theme in their drawings. Figure Two was drawn by an 11 year old grade 5 male whose personality type was ESFJ. The predominant colours were brown and black. The scene appeared to be one of

a desert with two tanks facing and firing at each other. Flying overhead is a US Navy jet. The jet is the largest figure in the picture. In describing the picture, the artist claimed that his picture was like the real thing with the navy and ground vehicles attacking the enemy. He also stated that war made him sad because of the people that died. Figure Three was drawn by a 12 year old grade 7 female student whose personality type was ESFJ. The battle scene depicted a plane bombing a building as two soldiers looked on. Between the soldiers was a hospital tent. The girl, in describing her picture, claimed it was a night scene with planes bombing buildings. She stated that everyone was very scared. She also claimed that we should never have wars anad that we should be able to settle things peacefully.

The battlefield is often protrayed as a very confusing place because of the noise and activity. Figures Four and Five examine this issue. Figure Four was drawn by an 11 year old female with the personality type ENFP. Her predominant colours were red and black. Her picture demonstrated that despite the confusion, there can be an orderliness and determination as witnessed by the troops from the United States and Canada that she has drawn. Her picture used sound words like boom, bang and zoom to create the image of

noise. Her picture also portrayed the destruction of Iraqi equiptment. Interestingly, her picture was not factually correct because no ground forces from Canada took part in the land battles. The girl described her drawing as unique and she did not feel too good about war. The next picture, Figure Five, was drawn by a 14 year old male student. He was in grade 8 and his personality type was INFP. The predominant colour in the picture was brown. The scene was of a plane and a tank followed by troops advancing on a position. The troops in the position are being fired upon and one of the soldiers is telling the others to retreat. A gun position was firing at the aircraft but does not hit it. The scene was one of Canadians trying to defend themselves. The student claimed that the picture showed Canadians being attacked, but they did not have enough equipment to defend themselves. The student felt that wars were not the best thing but sometimes they had to happen.

Another theme displayed in two of the eight pictures was that in the final analysis a war was a contest between two people. Figure Six demonstrated this well as did Figure Seven. Figure Six was drawn by a 13 year old boy with an undetermined personality type. His picture protrayed a soldier trying to kill Hussein who was in a bunker under the ground. Saddam

appeared to be praying while laying on a bed. This student clearly labelled Saddam as the villan. He declared that there might be freedom now that Saddam was dead. Such a circumstance would bring relief, stated the boy. He also said that he hated war. Figure Seven was drawn by a 13 year old grade 8 female student with an undetermined personality type. The central focus of the picture appeared to be an explosion. Two soldiers were firing at each other while the barrels of their rifles were touching. Both soldiers appeared to be trying to kill each other. Both soldiers had very determined looks on their faces and appeared to have cuts and bruises on their facial area. The girl stated that people were always at war and fighting each other. She also stated that she doesn't like war because of the physical and emotional pain it causes everyone.

Figure Eight, despite its simplicity, was very powerful. The predominant colour wass black. The picture was of a city being bombed. The bombing appeared to be being carried out by a missile. The student, a 13 year old grade 8 male with a personality type of INFP described his picture as Israel being attacked by one of Saddam's Scud missiles with a Patriot missile chasing it. The boy felt that life should never be wasted and that war sucked.

The responses to the questions accompanying the drawings were varied. Those that did respond to question, How would you describe their drawing?, did just that. Descriptions referred to items they included in their pictures. Several referred to their drawing as people fighting for no reason; for their rights; adults and children getting hurt or killed. When asked to provide a meaning to their picture responses included close to hell; Canada helping another country; people fighting people; horror; pain; and you fight and get killed. Those children who answered the question about their feelings towards war included such adjectives and phrases as scared; painful; violent; sad; dumb; stupid; not fair, disgusting; silly; childish; and hate. One of the most unusual responses was that the student felt sad because many of our Canadians were killed. The drawings are useful because they are made three months after the war ceased. The scene each study participate provided was an image of the war as seen and remembered through their eyes.

Overal, the results of this study indicated that the perceptions of the student sample under examination were based upon primarily what they saw on television and by what they gathered from their parents. Their knowledge base about the Persian Gulf War was quite

good and they presented a divergence of views when it came to their opinions of warfare. Factors such as sex of the respondent did appear to have an affect on some of the responses. This appeared to be consistent with other studies presented earlier. Due to the size of the sample, no definitive statement can be made as to the effect of clearly defined and undetermined personality type on the responses. However, there were questions and statements when personality type was used as a variable that caused some interaction.

Chapter V

Discussion and Implications

The primary purpose of this research paper was to determine the perceptions of a group of Grade 5 to Grade 8 students, residing in a military community, towards the Persian Gulf War and warfare generally. The subjects in the sample completed the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children to determine whether or not they had a clearly defined or undetermined personality type. They then completed the Perceptions of War Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire about the Persian Gulf War and their attitudes to warfare generally. Finally, they drew a war scene of their choice and answered the following three questions:

1. What does the picture mean to you?
2. How would you describe the drawing?
3. How do you feel about war?

In Chapter 5, a discussion of the results provided in Chapter 4 will be presented. As well, possible areas of future research will be suggested.

Discussion

Question 1. What perceptions (knowledge, feelings and attitudes) did the total sample have with regard to the Persian Gulf War specifically and warfare generally?

In general, the majority of students in the sample were able to respond correctly to the questions asked about the Gulf War. This was not the case in either the Tolley (1973) study or that Roscoe et al., (1988) where both found the amount of knowledge of their respective samples rather limited. In his study, Tolley termed the level of knowledge not impressive and in Roscoe et al., many of his students replied they did not know. In the present study, those questions which posed difficulty had to do primarily with terminology and tactics. The students, almost 75%, had trouble defining such terms as Smart Bomb and collateral damage. Almost 60% of the respondents did not recognize the fact that Iraq did not use chemical weapons. Approximately 43% of the sample did not know that the Coalition Forces used their combined Air Forces first in their attack on Iraq. This response was significant at the $p<.05$ level. A similar number did not know that General Schwarzkopf was the leader of the Coalition Forces. It was perhaps understanding

that the respondents had difficulty defining collateral damage and a Smart Bomb. This terminology has limited usage and was not discussed as extensively as some other aspects of the war. However, it was puzzling that a higher percentage of the students did not answer correctly the questions concerning the Iraq's failure to use chemical weapons, the use of aerial bombardment and finally recognition of General Schwarzkopf. The students claimed that they watched television extensively and it was their most important source of information. If one were to re examine the amount of television broadcasting time devoted to these issues, it would be massive. How did the students miss this information? Perhaps part of the answer lay with sex differences. This hypothesis will be examined more thoroughly later.

Another interesting fact is that almost 50% of the respondents were not able to correctly identify Canada's contribution to the War. The reason for this may lay in the fact that much was made of Canada's Air and Sea roles in our own media specifically and in the international media generally. However, there was an Army presence; used primarily in the support role of guarding Canadian aircraft and bases in the region. There was little mention of this, even in the Canadian Media.

With regards to attitudes towards warfare, the students present a disjointed picture but a picture that bears much similarily to the results achieved by both Tolley (1973) and Roscoe et al., (1988) in their respective studies. In this current study, one of the most perplexing statements for the students was; Wars are always wrong. There was almost a three way split in the responses. About 35% agreed, 35% disagreed and finally approximately 30% did not know. This data can be compared with that of Tolley (1973) and Roscoe et al., (1988). Tolley found, concerning the Vietnam War, the response rate to the same question was 38%, 44% and 18% respectively. Roscoe et al., in their study about American involvement in Latin America, reported a response rate of 56%, 26% and 16% respectively to the question. One reason for the three way split in the present study might have been the potential involvement of their parents in the Persian Gulf War. Almost 60% of the sample felt wars were sometimes needed. In Tolley's study, the support for this statement is 56% and in Roscoe et al., 65% of their respondents supported it. The statement, War is good, was found in all three studies. In the 1973 study, 87% disagreed, in 1988, 79% disagreed and in the current study, 89% disagreed. In the current study the response rate was significant at the $p<.05$ level. Another statement

found in all three studies was, Everybody should be ready to die for our country's freedom. In the current study the agreement response rate was 52.4%, Tolley recorded 56% and Roscoe et al., found 63% supported this statement. The statement, Stopping a war is hard, was also similar to the three studies. In the current study, about 91% agreed with the statement whereas in the 1973 study, 91% agreed and in the 1988 study 92%. The response rate here was almost the same by all the students in the various samples. In the present study, the response rate to this statement was significant at the $p<.05$ level. In general, the response rate among the common questions posed in the three studies were very similar.

Other responses that were worth noting from the current study were, about 82% of the students felt wars were not worthwhile and almost 80% felt good things could happen as a result of war. Yet, despite the above, almost 60% said it was not permissable to kill during a war. This last position seemed to send out a strong message that these students did not understand the nature of warfare. The very concept of war, historically and practically, implied death and destruction. They seemed to lack this basic knowledge or did not want to admit it because of their parents' possible roles in the conflict.

The main sources of knowledge about the Persian Gulf War were television, parents and magazines respectively. The students claimed the most important sources of learning were television and parents. These findings were found in the earlier studies, Tolley and Roscoe et al. The question in both the earlier studies was worded in a similar manner to the one in the current study. Tolley found that the major sources of information in order were television, 44%, parents 20%, and teachers, 13%. Roscoe et al., found, that in their sample, television was ranked 29%, parents 33% and teachers 23%. In the current study, television was ranked 46.8%, parents 30.6% and teachers 11.3%. Both the Vietnam War and the Persian Gulf War were covered massively on television. The events in Latin America were more secretive in nature and less likely to have massive television exposure. One has to wonder how much the perceptions of the War and attitudes to warfare generally, that the students have provided, are really theirs or a reflection of their parents.

Educators may find it surprising that less than 12% of the sample considered teachers as the most important source of learning about the conflict. However, Tolley (1973) reported a similar finding whereas Roscoe et al., (1988) found that teachers and parents had the most impact on students learning about

war. Reasons for the differences may be the the amount of media coverage of the Persian Gulf War, recognition by the students that their parents may know a considerable amount about the topic because of the nature of their work and finally a lack of willingness by teachers to discuss the topic. The first two alternatives are probably more correct because the teachers did spend a considerable amount of time discussing the topic.

A question concerning consideration of joining the military as a career option was asked in all three studies. The present study recorded findings of 29% who would consider it, 44% stated no and 27% did not know. Tolley found the following statistics, 22% desired to serve, 33% did not and 45% were uncertain. Roscoe et al., obtained these results, 23%, 32% and 45% respectively. These figures were very similar in the two older studies but quite abit different than those in the current study. One reason for the difference may be these children's experience within the military community and their understanding as to what it means to be in the armed forces.

Question 2. Did the gender of the respondent have any effect on their perceptions (knowledge, feelings and

attitudes) to the Persian Gulf War and warfare generally?

Generally, male knowledge about specific facts regarding the Persian Gulf War were superior. The males more often correctly answered 9 of the 13 questions given. Researchers such as Preston (1942), Rosell (1968), Tolley (1973), Tizard (1984), Roscoe et al., (1988) have reported that males generally have better factual knowledge than do girls when it comes to a conflict. In a re examination of the statements raised previously, the boys did score higher on issues involving tactics and terminology except for defining collateral damage. The female - male response rate to question 8 concerning the Scud and the Tomahawk missiles produced a significant Chi square at the $p<.05$ level. Almost 66% of the boys identifed General Schwarzkopf and approximately 54% correctly identified Iraq's non use of chemical weapons. Furthermore, the majority of boys, 76.4% , gave the right answer when they stated that the Coaliation Forces used their combined air forces against Iraq. This compared to a response rate of 37.9% for the girls. This response produced a significant Chi square at the $P<.01$ level. Sex differences was a factor here as it had been in other earlier studies.

Gender difference in responses did take place with regards to general opinions about warfare. Again in comparing the present study with one conducted by Roscoe et al., similarities and difference were noted. In the present study, girls, 39% answered yes to the statement that Wars were always wrong while 31% of the boys answered in that manner. Roscoe et al., reported 35% agreement with the statement for females and 37% for males. Females were less supportive in their belief that Wars were sometimes needed. Only 50% of the girls supported this statement whereas 63% of the boys gave support. Similarly, Roscoe reported a response rate of 49% for females and 59% for males. The response to the statement , War is a good thing produced the following results, for this study the males, 85.7% did not agree and 92.9% females did not agree. Roscoe et al. found 86% of the males did not agree and 73% of the females also said no. With regards the statement, Stopping a war is hard, the current study reported that 79.3% of the females concurred whereas 97.1% of the males agreed. The response to this question produced a significant Chi square at the $p<.01$ level. Roscoe et al., found that 95% of the males agreed with this statement whereas 88% of the females did. The statement, Everything about war is bad, produced findings that showed that 35.3% of

the boys and 41.4% of the girls in this study agreed with this statement. Roscoe et al. found a response of 38% and 55% respectively. The females in the present study had a much higher no response rate of 44.% when compared to Roscoe et al., rate of 33%.

On statements where there was no opportunity to compare studies, the following responses were found. Girls felt more favorably towards the statement that I felt sad when Canada went to war. Similar strong responses were given by girls to the statements regarding stress. Females were less supportive that Canada's role in military action should only be one of preserving the peace. The majority of male respondents, 82% supported this statement. By contrast, only 57% of the females gave their support. The reponse to the statement, Canada's role in the military should be one of perserving the peace, produced a Chi square significant at the $p<.05$ level. The statement, Killing people during a war is permissable, provided an interesting response. Girls, 46% of them, supported this statement whereas only about 33% of the boys did.

There were also some differences by gender in how the students gained their information about the Gulf War. Girls were more likely to discuss the issue with

classmates than boys. With regards to most important sources of learning, the girls gave much less credit to television than boys, 39% versus 53%. In fact, parents and television are ranked almost equally by females as the most important sources of learning. Specifically, the percentage of girls listing parents and television as the most important sources was 37.9% and 41.4% respectively. Roscoe et al. reported that 25% and 37% of the females listed parents and television respectively, as the major sources of information. In the current study, females were more definite in their decision to reject a military career than boys. This was reflected in the fact that 24.1% of the females said yes to joining the military compared to 33.3% for the boys. Roscoe et al. found only 11% of the females wanted to serve in the military compared to 33% of males. The male percentage of those wanting to serve in both studies was consistent.

In conclusion, gender was a definite variable in the response rate of the students. This factor is found with many other studies such as Preston (1942), Tolley (1973), Tizard (1984), and Roscoe et al.,(1988). Females generally hold stronger feelings against war and these sentiments are again reflected in this study. There were many similarities between the results of

this study and those of Tolley (1973) and Roscoe et al.,(1986).

Question 3. How did the sub sample, those 24 students from this study who were found to have a clearly defined personality type, compare to the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative population?

Despite the small sample used in this study, the percentages of CDPT and UDPT were almost identical to the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children sample. With regards to CDPT, the school sample was again quite similar. There was only one significant difference $p<.05$ in four letter types; the INFP group was over represented. Similar significant differences occurred on the individual P scale and the combination IP scale. It would appear from the data presented that the school sample was fairly representative of the general population. The usefulness of the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children in determining CDPT in smaller sample sizes was definitely supported by the results of this study.

Question 4. How does this sub sample population compare in relation to the percentages of each bipolar preference scale including U band cases to the

Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample?

The school sample and the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children normative sample were quite similar when the bipolar scales were compared. This was again further confirmation that the sample used in this study is fairly representative of the general population.

Question 5. What differences in response occurred between answers supplied by those study participants identified as having a clearly defined personality type and those who have an undefined personality type?

On seven of the thirteen possible correct responses, those students with a CDPT answered in greater numbers than those with a UDPT. However, only on four questions were the response rates greater than 10%. Those questions had to do with the definition of a Smart Bomb, Canada's contribution to the war effort, the use of chemical weapons and finally recognition that Iraq had fired missiles at Isreal. Of these four questions, two of them, the definition and the use of chemical weapons, produced the greatest difference in responses between CDPT anf UDPT.

With regards to general opinions to war, there were several statements that produced moderate differences in responses. For example, in response to the statement, Wars are sometimes needed, 50% of the CDPT supported this whereas 61% of UDPT did the same thing. 75% of the CDPT supported Canada's involvement in the Persian Gulf War, however, only 56% of UDPT agreed with the statement. Students with a CDPT were less likely to approve killing during a war and follow the advice of their leaders during war.

In regards to sources of information, there was little if any difference between sources of information and the ranking given to the most important learning source. The percentages for both groups were almost the same in each category.

In conclusion, there did appear to be slight response differences between students of clearly defined and undefined personality type. These findings must be tempered with the realization that boys were represented in larger numbers than girls in the CDPT group. Perhaps it was more a matter of gender than personality type that accounted for the differences. It must be remembered that one third of those in the CDPT sub sample were female the rest were male. To really determine the degree of interaction of clearly

defined and undetermined personality type on responses, a much larger sample would have to be used.

Question 6. What do the children's drawings tell us about their thought and feelings towards war.

The drawings were presented as a projection of how the students saw war. The drawings were used as another attempt to get the samples' attitudes and feelings towards war. Judging from the expressions on the drawings and the injured people found on many of them, the students certainly have a good visual image of the realities of war. The students provided many commom images in their drawings and these included in numeric order soldiers, guns, killed or injured soldiers, and planes. Many of the pictures had words expressing noise as part of the picture. These words included boom, screech, scream, and expressions like hup2. Several pictures had very strong anti war sentiments like if you go to war you could end up like this and then they drew a soldier who was killed or seriously wounded. As well, the responses to the three questions accompanying each drawing certainly indicated that the students in the whole sample were against war and would describe it as a negative experience. Common responses from the drawings describing war included violent, sad, dumb, stupid, not fair and disgusting.

Unfortunately, there were no other studies to compare the drawings of this study. Alvik (1963) mentioned in his study that he used drawings but they were not part of the article.

Implications

The first implication of this study is that despite the size of the sample, its results are not much different than previous studies that have sought to question children on a specific war and warfare generally. Children are definitely concerned about the topic. Parents continue to be one of the most important sources of learning about war. The power of video medium provided the students with instant graphic images of what was happening. Sex of the sample participants definitely did have an effect on many of the responses. Children usually have a good appreciation of a major conflict but boys are more aware of the factual knowledge than girls. However, when it came to opinions about war itself, the students in the sample expressed many divergent views, views similar to the studies carried out by Tolley (1973) and Roscoe et al., (1988). These views made the researcher question if they really understood the nature of war. In the opinion of the researcher, verbally, they did not express it well. The visual images that provided

them with much of their knowledge, rolled by on a video screen. These images were just that to many in the sample. The students seemed to be caught in a video game where no one really dies. Yet warfare is a very serious game where death and destruction are common. The drawings, however, forced the participants to come to grips with the issue of war. Many of the drawings have caught the essence of war. The drawing has forced the participant to examine war in its reality and recognize that it changes its combatants. Sometimes, the change is final.

The second implication is that attempts to determine a link between clearly defined and undetermined personality types and attitudes to warfare were not very successful. There appeared to be some linkage to a few of the questions and statements posed, however, nothing conclusive can be determined because the factor of gender caused similar interaction. The size of the sample was also too small to produce conclusive results. More research in the field of children personality type should be carried out with regards to other major issues of the day to determine if personality type does indeed play a part on how children think about them.

The third implication was that despite the amount of time children are at school, the teacher was considered by many students, not only in this study but in others as well, to be one of the least important sources of information on the topic. The reasons for this were discussed earlier. This is unfortunate. Clearly, it is important for teachers to become more aware of the issues of warfare. Teachers must develop programs in this area. It is important in these programs that they present to their students the information as well as the opportunities to learn about the realities of war. Students have to be provided with educational opportunities that encourage them to discuss their feelings to war and to help them come to a better understanding of its realities. Perhaps this could be best done by bringing into classes people who have experienced war and let them discuss their feelings with the children thus putting a human face to the issue. Another way is for teachers to harness the video medium and use it to provide the students with experiences of war. Here, however, the teacher must stop the video on a regular basis, provide explanations and field questions from the students. Only with such experiences can people have a hope of understanding what massive conflict involves. Another factor that is important to realize is that age plays a

factor in understanding the realities of war. As a result, the education process with regards to war must take this in mind and gear any program accordingly. It is only by knowing about war that perhaps alternatives to it can be developed. That is the only way to secure peace among nations in a particularly violent world.

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Canadian Forces Base Edmonton
P.O. Box 10500
Edmonton, Alberta
T5J 4J5

June 1991

Dear Parents:

Mr. MacKay, a teacher at Guthrie School, is completing a M.Ed. in School Psychology at the University of Alberta. Presently, he is doing his thesis research into the topic of Student Personality Type and Childrens' Attitudes to Warfare. The primary purpose of this study will be to determine if the personality type of the student has any relationship to their perception of warfare. The secondary purpose of this particular study will be to examine the students' knowledge and attitudes to war. The subjects will write in groups, the Murphy Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC), then complete a questionnaire which will sample their knowledge about the Persian Gulf War and their attitudes to warfare. Finally, the students will be asked to participate in a drawing exercise. The writing of the MMTIC and the questionnaire will take no more than forty minutes and the drawing exercise will take another forty minutes. I and other Base Officials have reviewed Mr. MacKay's research instruments and have approved his request to conduct his research. Mr. MacKay has provided a brief rationale on the following page.

The data collected will be statistical in nature. No names of the students will be collected. Confidentiality will be assured in the following ways:

a. Mr. MacKay will not administer the research tools to the students. He will only receive the completed results and do all scoring and interpretation.

b. The classroom teacher will not administer the tests but another teacher will, and that teacher will not see the results of the testing or in any way participate in the scoring or interpretation.

c. Each student will receive a file folder in which will be found the testing materials. Each student will draw a number from a set of numbers from 1 to 100 and then he or she will be asked to put that number on the MMTIC answer sheet, the questionnaire and the drawing. This will ensure that all the materials submitted to each student can be properly matched. Upon completion of the testing, the student can tear up the number. Therefore, the results of any one particular student's efforts cannot be traced and student response confidentiality will be maintained.

Canada

Mr. MacKay would like to conduct his research with students from Grades 5 to 8 inclusive. In order to do this, your permission to have your son or daughter participate in the study must be obtained. Would you please complete the consent form below and return it to your child's teacher by the 13 June 1991? Thank you.

D.C. Brazeau
Major
for Base Commander

CONSENT FORM

I give/do not give permission for _____ to participate in this study and consent to him/her completing the MMTIC, the attitude questionnaire and the drawing exercise. If for any reason my son or daughter does not want to participate at the time of testing, I understand that he/she will not be made to do so.

Parent's Signature _____

APPENDIX B

Number ___

Perceptions of War

Attitude and Opinion Questionnaire

You are asked to answer the following questions. The questions are of two kinds, those that require a fact answer and those that ask you to express an opinion.

An example of a fact question is:

Alberta is a province of:

_____ a. Mexico
__x_ _b. Canada
_____ c. England
_____ d. United States

There can only be one correct answer to this question. The answer is b , so you would put an X beside answer b.

An example of an opinion question would be:

Do you like school?

_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Sometimes

There is no right or wrong answer to questions like this. The question is really asking how you feel about something. You would answer this kind of question by putting an X by the answer that best describes how you feel.

So let's begin.

A. Put an X beside the answer that best describes you.

1. You are:

_____ a. boy
_____ b. girl

2. You are in Grade:

_____ a. four
_____ b. five
_____ c. six
_____ d. seven
_____ e. eight

3. You are:

_____ a. 8 years old
_____ b. 9 years old
_____ c. 10 years old
_____ d. 11 years old
_____ e. 12 years old
_____ f. 13 years old
_____ g 14 years old

4. Which parent is in the Armed Forces?

_____ a. Father
_____ b. Mother
_____ c. Both

_____

B. In February of this year, the Persian Gulf War occurred. Below you will find a series of questions on this topic. Please answer the following questions by putting an X on the space beside the correct answer.

5. The Persian Gulf War happened because:

_____ a. Iraq invaded Kuwait.
_____ b. Saudi Arabia invaded Iran
_____ c. Iran invaded Kuwait.
_____ d. Jordan invaded Iraq.

6. The leader of Iraq during this war was:

_____ a. Saddam Hussein
_____ b. Jean Hussein
_____ c. George Bush
_____ d. Brian Mulroney

7. During the war, Iraq fired missiles at:
____ a. Jordan
____ b. Isreal
____ c. Egypt
____ d. Turkey

8. A Scud and a Tomahawk were types of:
____ a. tanks
____ b. trucks
____ c. missiles
____ d. airplanes

9. A smart bomb is one that:
____ a. is guided to its target by a laser beam
____ b. has a computer brain it uses to find its target
____ c. is justed dropped from the plane
____ d. does not exist

10. The term collateral damage was used to describe:
____ a. damage inflicted on miltary targets
____ b. damage inflicted on civilian targets
____ c. civilian deaths
____ d. both b and c
____ e. both a and b

11. The Persian Gulf War :
____ a. is still continuing.
____ b. ended by means of a ceasefire.
____ c. ended with the death of Iraq's leader.
____ d. never really occurred.

12. The military leader of the armed forces (the Coalition Forces) which banded together to free Kuwait was:
____ a. General Schwarzkopf
____ b. General Hussein
____ c. General al Saud
____ d. General Smith

13. During the war, the leader of Iraq:
    ____ a. used chemical weapons against the Coalition Forces.
    ____ b. threatened to use these weapons and did not.
    ____ c. used these weapons against Isreal.
    ____ d. used these weapons against Jordan.

14. The Coalition Forces first used their combined:
    ____ a. Air Forces
    ____ b. Naval Forces
    ____ c. Army Forces
    ____ d. Marine Forces

    to weaken Iraq's armed forces.

15. Canada sent to help free Kuwait parts of its:
    ____ a. Air Force
    ____ b. Navy
    ____ c. Army
    ____ d. Answers a and b
    ____ e. all of the above

16. The present leader of Iraq is:
    ____ a. Saddam Hussein
    ____ b. King Hussein
    ____ c. King Fahad
    ____ d. King al Saud

17. The Kurdish refugee problem is a direct result of:
    ____ a. the Persian Gulf War
    ____ b. the violent weather
    ____ c. too many people living in the area
    ____ d. American Forces entry into Northern Iraq

C. These questions ask for your opinion and therefore have no right or wrong answer. You are to choose the answer that tells how you feel about each question and mark an X on the line in front of it.

18. Wars are always wrong.

    _____ a. Yes
    _____ b No
    _____ c. Don't Know

19. Wars are sometimes needed.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

20. Wars are always worthwhile.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

21. Wars are a good thing.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

22. Wars bring loss of life and damage to property.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

23. Everybody should be willing to die for his/hers country's freedom.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

24. Stopping a war is hard.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

25. Canada did the right thing by sending men and women to fight in the Persian Gulf War.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

26. War is boring.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't know

27. Everything about war is bad.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

28. I felt sad when Canada went to war.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

29. Good things can happen as a result of war.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

30. The war was considered stressful by me and / or my family.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

31. Killing people during a war is permissable.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

32. People are basically good.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

33. It is important to rescue (save) people.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

34. I like wars.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

35. We should follow the advice of our leaders during war even if we disagree with what they are saying.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

36. I felt guilty about the war.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

37. People are basically bad.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

38. We must always follow rules.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

39. I did alot of thinking about the war but kept it to myself.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

40. Canada's role in military action should only be one of perserving the peace.
____ a. Yes
____ b. No

D. Below is a list of possible people and things. Put an X on the line for each to show where you learned about the war.

41. I watched the Persian Gulf War on television.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

42. I talked about the war with my teacher.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

43. I talked about the war with my parents.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

44. I talked alot about the war with my classmates.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

45. I read about the war in newspapers and magazines.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

46. What one person or thing helped you learn the most about the war?
_____ a. Parents
_____ b. Older brother or sister
_____ c. Teacher
_____ d. TV
_____ e. Radio
_____ f. Books and newspapers
_____ g. Friends

47. Did you see pictures of men and women really fighting in the Persian Gulf on TV news shows.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No

48. When you grow up, would you consider joining the Armed Forces.
_____ a. Yes
_____ b. No
_____ c. Don't Know

APPENDIX C

Number __

Drawing Exercise

On the attached paper, please draw a war scene of your choice using the colored pencils provided. Once you are finished your picture, please answer the following questions.

1. What does your picture mean to you?

2. How would you describe your drawing?

3. How do you feel about war?

APPENDIX D

Instructions to be followed.

1. Have each student sign the participant consent form. Then collect them.

2. Allow each student to pick a number from the bowl.

3. Have the student write his/her number on the MMTIC answer sheet, the questionnaire and finally on the drawing assignment.

4. Have the students take the MMTIC test and answer form out of the file folder. Fill out the information part of the answer sheet having to do with sex ,grade, age, by filling in the appropriate circle.

5. Take the MMTIC booklet, read out the instructions, and then let the students begin.

6. Once finished the MMTIC, take out the questionnaire, read the instructions and let the students begin.

7. Drawing Exercise

Let the students use the paper and colored pencils provided to draw a war scene of their choice. Once completed, remind them to answer the questions about their drawing. This exercise should take no more than 20 minutes.

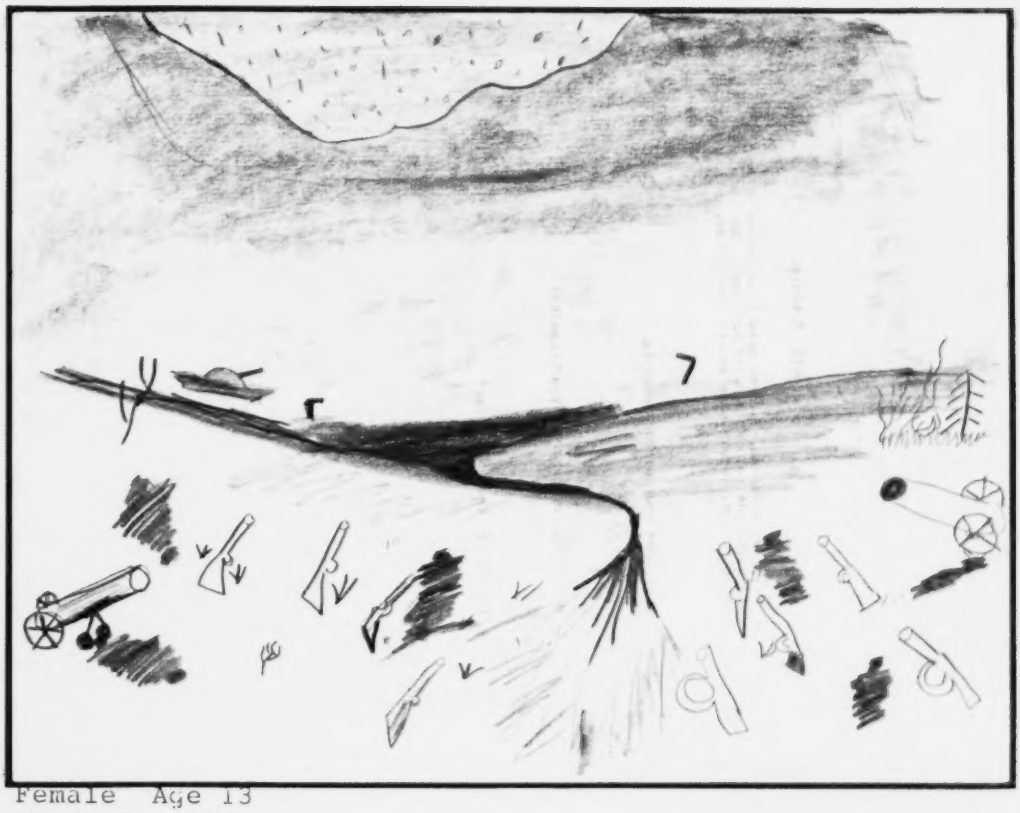
8. When finished, make sure students have their number recored on the MMTIC answer sheet, the questionnaire and on their drawing. Once this is confirmed, have the students put **** ALL **** their materials back in the folder and collect them.

9. Thank them on my behalf for their participation.

APPENDIX E

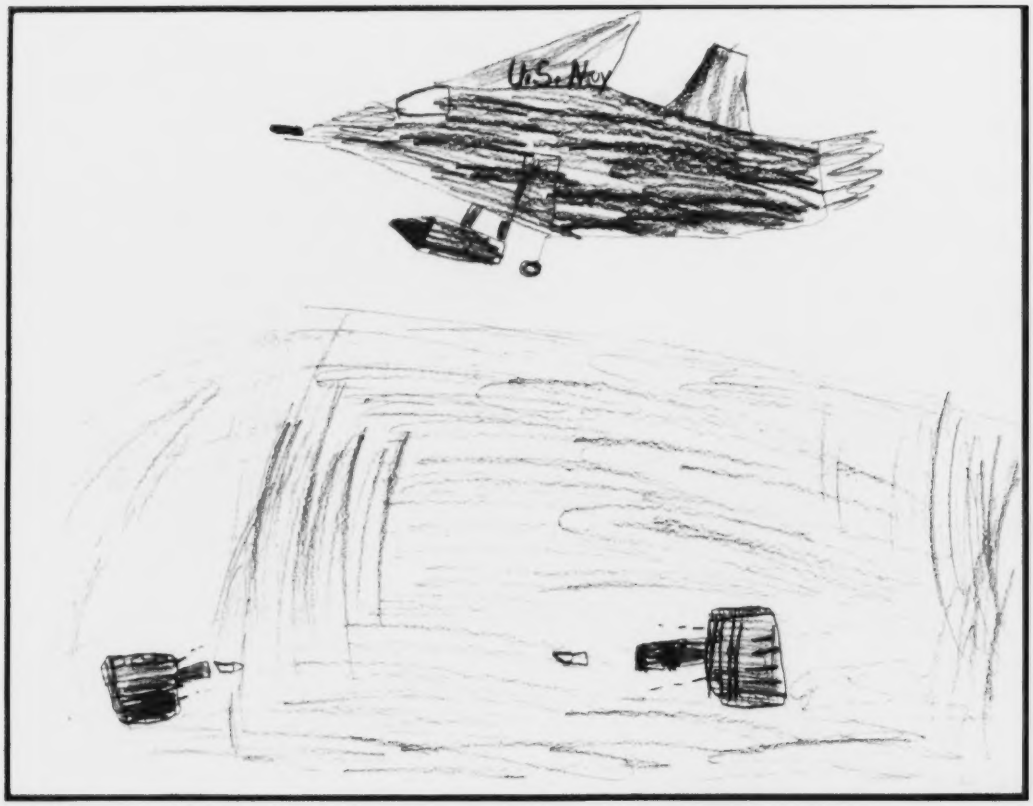
SAMPLE DRAWINGS

Figure 1



Female Age 13
Grade 7 ESFP

Figure 2

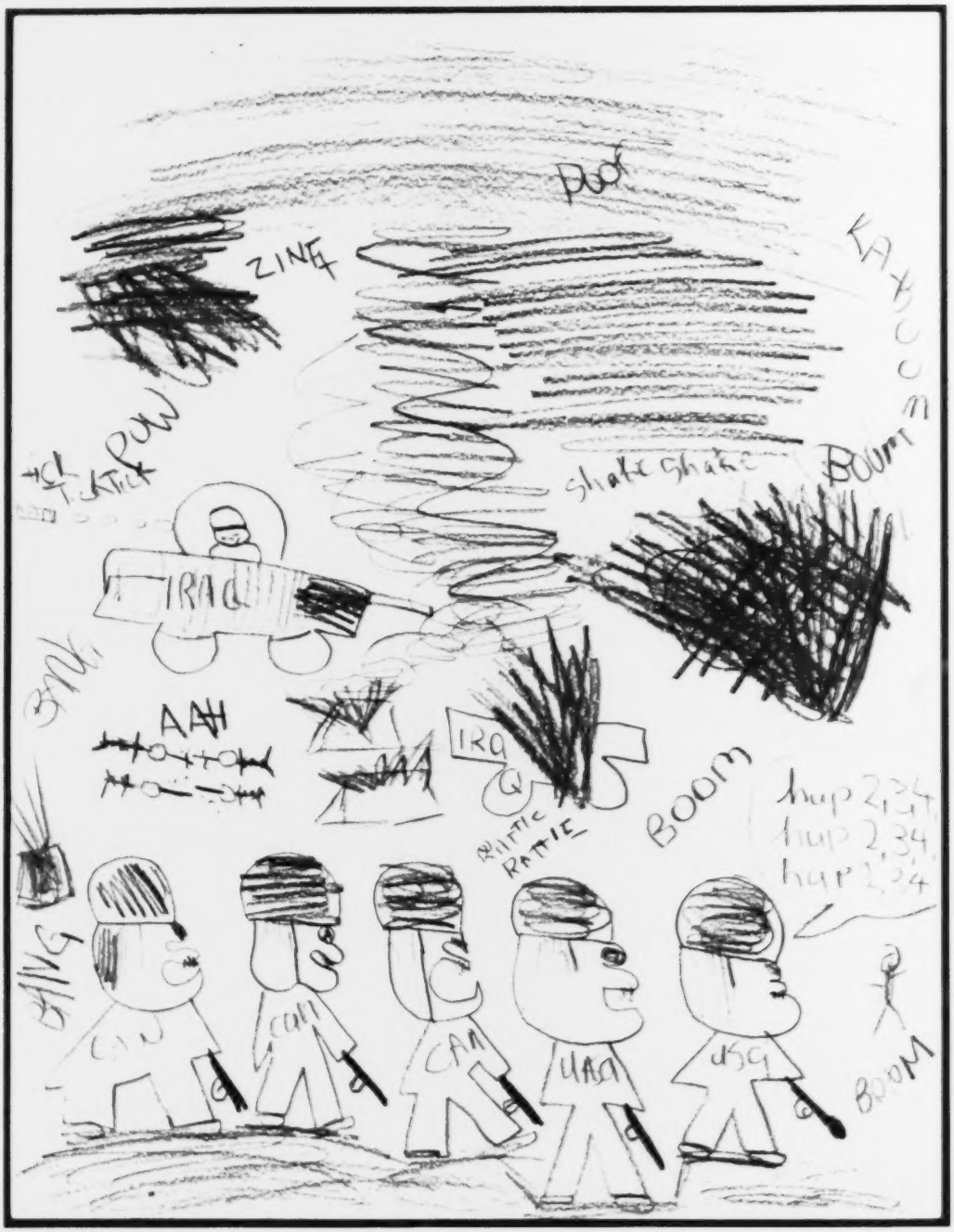


Male Age 11
Grade 5 ESFJ

Figure 3

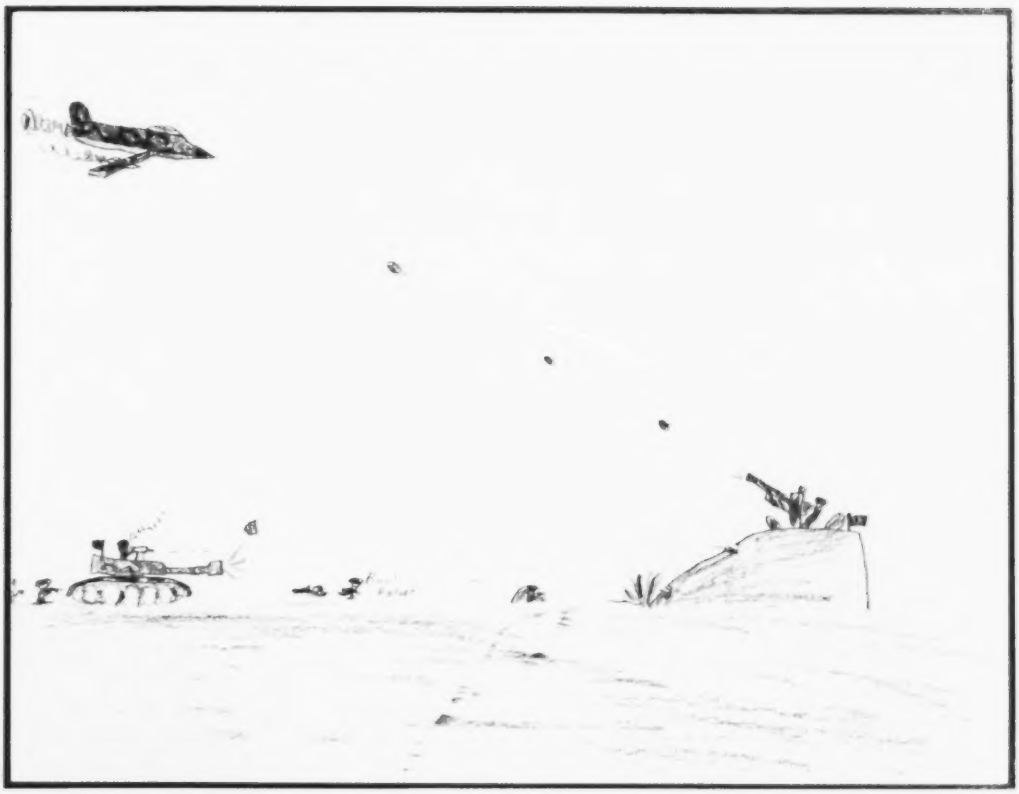
Female Age 12
Grade 7 ESFJ

Figure 4



Female Age 11
Grade 6 ENFP

Figure 5

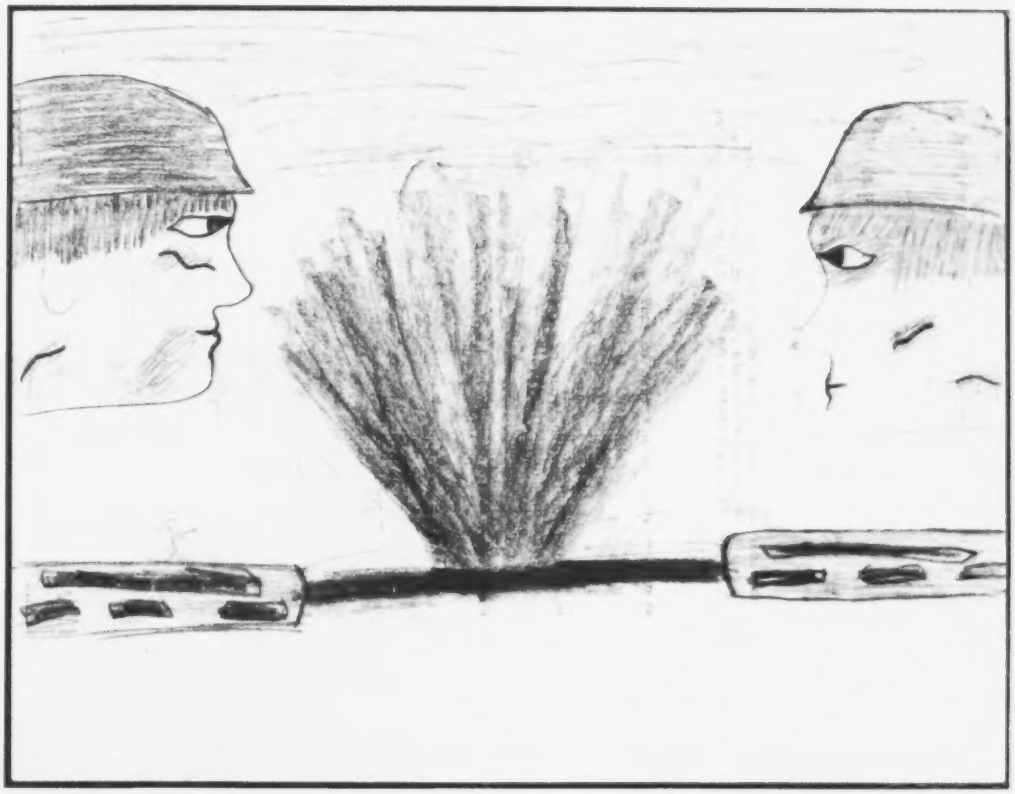


Male Age 14
Grade 8 INFP

Figure 6

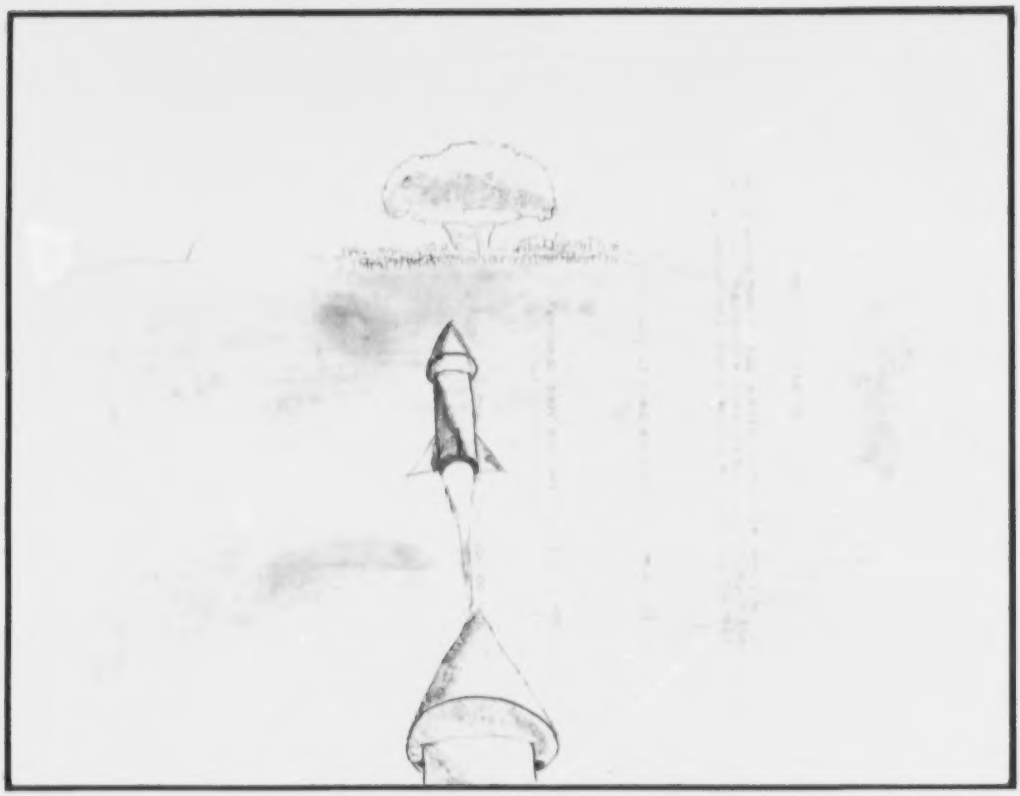
Male Age 13
UDPT

Figure 7



Female Age 13
Grade 8 UDPT

Figure 8



Male Age 13
Grade 8 INFP